

**A Study of the Proceedings
of the
Convention of American Instructors
of the Deaf
1850-1949**

**BETTE LA VERNE FAUTH
and
WARREN WESLEY FAUTH**

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BETTE LA VERNE FAUTH*
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With a Foreword by

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FOREWORD

Every year more and more material is being published in the area of deafness, thus, there is the chance that many teachers of the deaf, as well as many doing research work in this area, may forget the valuable material to be found in the back volumes of the *Proceedings* of the Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf. The first issue of the *American Annals of the Deaf* was published in Hartford, Connecticut, in October, 1847, and only three years later, in 1850, the first *Proceedings* of the Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf was published in New York City.

Inasmuch as many research workers and graduate students are now working in the area of deafness, it is the belief of the members of the Board of Directors of the Convention that the thesis on A Study of the Proceedings from 1850 to 1949 by Mr. and Mrs. Warren W. Fauth, be published in its entirety and mailed to every teacher of the deaf who holds current membership in the organization.

This is the second Bulletin issued to the members of the Convention. Bulletin No. 1 was a reprint of Margaret Fitzgerald's Workshop in Language for the Deaf, issued in 1964.

STANLEY D. ROTH, LITT.D.

President

Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf

The *Proceedings* of the Meetings of the Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf are published biennially and are available at five dollars each for the years 1893-1965 from the office of the Administrative Secretary, Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf, Gallaudet College, Washington, D. C. 20002.

Part I of this article was published in the ANNALS for March, 1950 (Vol. 95, No. 2), pp. 219-248, Part II in the ANNALS for May, 1950 (Vol. 95, No. 3), pp. 280-314, Part III in the ANNALS for November, 1950 (Vol. 95, No. 5), pp. 491-518, Part IV in the ANNALS for March, 1951 (Vol. 96, No. 2), pp. 288-319, Part V in the ANNALS for September, 1952 (Vol. 97, No. 4), pp. 387-405, Part VI in the ANNALS for November, 1952 (Vol. 97, No. 5), pp. 471-487, Part VII in the ANNALS for November, 1954 (Vol. 99, No. 5), pp. 391-400, Part VIII in the ANNALS for March, 1955 (Vol. 100, No. 2), pp. 253-290, Part IX in the ANNALS for November, 1955 (Vol. 100, No. 5) concludes the study.

Many worthwhile ideas and suggestions which have been lost or forgotten may be found within these pages. Many theories which have failed completely are represented; many successes are noted. It is significant that a number of ideas now used in the more progressive public schools were born in the minds of educators of the deaf out of necessity and were a part of the curriculums of schools for the deaf years before they were realized by the public schools. It is noted, also, that many ideas which were considered modern fifty or seventy-five years ago are still in use today and in some cases are revived ideas which are taken for granted to be new and modern methods.

One of the purposes of this thesis is to create an interest in the wealth of material contained in the *Proceedings*. It is desired also that members of the profession be interested in the Conventions and in procuring copies of the future *Proceedings*. It is here where all the outstanding educators of the deaf give voice to their opinions and where newcomers into the field are given an opportunity to profit by their years of research and experience. Members exchange ideas in their common interest and there exists a strong bond of fellowship among the members of the profession.

Bette La Verne Fauth and Warren Wesley Fauth

INTRODUCTION

The Proceedings of the Meeting of the Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf consist of thirty-two volumes and two *Proceedings* in manuscript form and contain the complete account of each Convention held since 1850 up to the present time. The activities of each meeting are contained in a single volume and make a total of thirty-four volumes including the two in manuscript.** Since 1898 these *Proceedings* have been published by the United States government as a public document. In 1949, the Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf celebrated its One-hundredth Anniversary.

Included in the *Proceedings* are discussions, accounts of the business meetings, addresses of the presidents and other members, papers presented on various topics concerning the education of the deaf, letters, and demonstrations.

The *Proceedings* contain a wealth of material of historical and educational value which is often not drawn upon by members connected with the education of the deaf. The reason for this is that there is no convenient index in existence for finding material within the volumes. Most of the *Proceedings* contain an index for its particular meet-

**These *Proceedings* should not be confused with issues of the AMERICAN ANNALS OF THE DEAF in which are published reports of the Convention proceedings from time to time.

Since the publication of this thesis in 1950 there is now a total of 42 volumes of the *Proceedings*, which includes the 42nd Meeting, 1965 volume.

ing, but in order to find information on a given subject it is necessary to look through one index after another, making subject matter difficult to locate.

The purpose of this thesis is to make these thirty-four books an additional source of information to all those interested in the education of the deaf. In order to do this, the thirty-five chapters of the thesis are set up according to principal subjects prevalent in the education of the deaf. At the end of each Chapter is a Bibliography which consists of a complete list of papers, principal demonstrations, and discussions on the Chapter subject as found in the entire *Proceedings*. The Bibliography is arranged in a chronological order and the text of each Chapter is written with the purpose of showing the development of that particular subject through the hundred-year period. The main discussion in the text of the thesis deals with the content of the papers presented at the Conventions although many times the discussions following these papers are referred to when items of interest occur therein. Occasionally, addresses and demonstrations are also discussed in the text.

Often the same subjects are discussed in different papers, and many subjects are related to one another. The index serves as a cross-reference to refer the reader to other chapters which contain additional information on a certain subject.

All of the papers which were presented at the Conventions since the First Convention in 1850 are represented in the Bibliographies. Since many of the papers deal with two or more subjects the papers are sometimes listed in several Bibliographies. More than 1,100 papers have been presented at the thirty-four Conventions.

Due to the extensive amount of material covered in the *Proceedings* not all of the papers could be discussed in the text of the thesis. Many interesting details are omitted of necessity, but an effort was made to present all of the most pertinent ideas on each subject. There was a tendency to deal more extensively with the material in the earlier *Proceedings* because copies of these *Proceedings* are less

available to members of the profession in all parts of the United States and Canada.

The First Chapter of the thesis concerns the history of the Convention and includes an account of the business sessions, important resolutions passed, and other items of interest concerned with its organization. The Bibliography of this Chapter includes a list of the *Proceedings*, the number of pages contained in each, and the place of publication.

The Appendix includes a tabulation of a survey made on all bound volumes of the *Proceedings* located in schools for the deaf, various libraries, and private libraries. It also contains a list of the Conventions, when and where each was held, and its officers.

Chapter XVII contains the necrology of members of the profession since 1850 as found in the *Proceedings*.

The numbers in parentheses used throughout the text of the thesis refer to the number of the paper included in the Bibliography of that Chapter. Of necessity these references could not be completely exhausted in work of this size. Only principal references are given wherever a list of references is presented.

No material from other sources on any subject is discussed except as it occurs in the *Proceedings*, except in the chapter on the History of the Convention, as indicated.

The *Proceedings of the Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf* serve as a valuable history of the education of the deaf in the United States since 1850 with a number of references to periods before this date. It is not, of course, a complete history but it is a rather unique history in which are discussed the many methods of instruction used in the education of the deaf in this country. In this respect, it contains material which in all probability does not exist outside of these volumes. Comments by the leaders of the profession were made at these Conventions which would have been lost in the atmosphere had they not been captured by stenographers and later put into print. These exist today for all who wish to read them. Certainly such com-

ments as these are not to be found elsewhere. They are not without humor; the debates and controversies exposed within these pages are intensely interesting and frequently exciting.

The *Proceedings* present a picture of the early educators who were moved by spiritual impulses and high endeavors to promote the education of the deaf and improve in every possible way the means of instructing the deaf. The Conventions of succeeding years have kept these same aims before them, the common object of all members being to further the improvement of the means of instructing the deaf.

I. THE HISTORY OF THE CONVENTION OF AMERICAN INSTRUCTORS OF THE DEAF

The design of the Convention, as originally instituted, was to bring together as many teachers of the deaf as possible, in order to compare methods, to impart instruction, explain theories, make acquaintances, and so bring about harmony of design, unity of action, and thus aid in the accomplishment of the object all had in view; namely, the education and betterment of the deaf and dumb.¹

The convention of American Instructors of the Deaf was the first national convention of teachers of the deaf ever to be held in the world. Founded in 1850, it is also among the four oldest national educational organizations in the United States.

Earlier conventions of German instructors were held as early as 1846 and 1847. These, however, according to the *ANNALS* were "Small gatherings of teachers residing in a single province or in adjoining provinces."² The same article states that the First National Convention of Instructors of the Deaf in Germany was held in Berlin in 1884. A similar organization of British teachers, started in 1851, did not become a national organization until 1895.³

The early German Conventions had considerable influence upon the formation of the American Convention. Luzerne Rae wrote in the *ANNALS* in 1849, "Is it not possible,

¹ J. L. Noyes, *Proceedings of the Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf*, 13:27, hereafter referred to as the *Proceedings*.

² E. A. Fay, *AMERICAN ANNALS OF THE DEAF*, 30:78, hereafter referred to as the *ANNALS*.

³ A. Farrar, *Arnold on the Education of the Deaf*, p. 83

—for the American teachers of the deaf to follow this example of their German brethren, and come together occasionally for mutual consultation?⁴

Apparently without knowledge of Mr. Rae's suggestion, the New York Institution sent out a circular to instructors in American Institutions, April 23, 1849, discussing the holding of a convention of the teachers of the deaf in this country. Replies were received from forty instructors from nine institutions. All those responding agreed that such a convention was desirable and most of them considered it practical. Invitations were then issued by Harvey P. Peet, David E. Bartlett, and J. Addison Cary to instructors, former instructors, and directors and trustees of the various institutions to attend such a convention at the New York Institution, August 28, 1849. An invitation to prepare papers of interest to be given at the convention was also included. The invitation was postponed until the next year because of an epidemic which was prevalent in New York at that time.

The First Convention was called to order August 28, 1850, by Dr. H. P. Peet, President of the New York Institution. General P. M. Whetmore, First Vice President of the New York Institution, was chosen as temporary chairman. He appointed a committee on credentials and a nominating committee. Upon the recommendation of the latter, the Hon. Christopher Morgan, Secretary of the State of New York, was unanimously elected President of the Convention⁵. He appointed a business and a rules committee. The committee on credentials reported that thirty-five delegates were present and presented the American Asylum, and the Pennsylvania, Indiana, Illinois, North Carolina and New York Institutions, as well as visitors and former instructors from other schools. The business committee reported that there would be discussion on several questions in addition to the papers presented.

The afternoon session was opened with a report of the

⁴ Luzerne Rae, *ANNALS*, 2:138

⁵ For a complete list of all the officers of the Conventions, see Appendix A, Officers of the Conventions. (Appendix A not published.)

rules committee, the rules of the Convention proceedings being those contained in *Jefferson's Manual* unless otherwise provided for. In addition to the papers delivered at the Convention, there were several resolutions of importance. One resolution pertained to the establishment of a periodical. After this was adopted the members of the Convention decided that the name, size, price, and general appearance should follow that of the AMERICAN ANNALS OF THE DEAF issued at the American Asylum. It was further agreed that this organ should be regarded as a continuation of this series. Mr. Luzerne Rae, the former editor, was elected by ballot as editor of the new issue. It was resolved and adopted that an executive committee of three persons be appointed to which the editor could refer on necessary matters. H. P. Peet, the Rev. Mr. Turner, and J. S. Brown were appointed on this committee.

A general committee was appointed consisting, *ex-officio*, of the superintendents of the different institutions for the deaf to act as a committee of correspondence as the authoritative representative of the Convention. Dr. H. P. Peet was appointed chairman of this committee. Near the close of the meeting the following resolution was adopted :

Resolved, That in view of the present apparent good results of this first experiment of a convention of Instructors of the Deaf and Dumb in the United States, the members of this convention have much cause for mutual congratulation, and much encouragement for the future; and that it is desirable that a convention of this body should take place one year hence, at some convenient time and place, to be designated by the general committee.⁶

The Second Convention was held the next year at the American Asylum, Hartford, Connecticut. In addition to the prepared papers there was considerable discussion on census and other statistics relating to the deaf, feasibility of establishing a high school, and the need for establishing other institutions for the deaf in the South and in the West.

The Third Convention, scheduled to meet in Ohio in 1852, was postponed until the next year due to the unexpected death of Mr. Cary, the host. Delegates from four institutions who had not been informed met at the sche-

⁶ *Proceedings*, 1:254-55

duled time and held a meeting. Business transacted at this meeting was ignored by the regular Convention which met in 1853. At the regular meeting, a general committee made up of one representative from each state present, was empowered to act as representative of the Convention when not in session. Also discussed, in addition to regular papers, was a plan for the future publication of the ANNALS and the establishment of a depository of works on deaf-mute education.

Committee reports on legal responsibilities, publication of the ANNALS, and internal organization were considered by the Fourth Convention in addition to prepared papers.

Ten schools were represented at the Fifth Convention in 1858, the largest representation to that date. A committee was appointed to develop signs for general or complex ideas such as time, weight, color, size, metal, and other such words. Regularly prepared papers and committee reports were also given.

The Sixth Convention, scheduled to meet in two years, did not meet until 1868 due to the Civil War and the unsettled conditions in the country. Edward Miner Gallaudet, President of the Columbia Institution for the Deaf and Dumb, issued a call in that year to heads of institutions to meet in Washington to discuss the articulation controversy. Fourteen schools were represented by their executives; California, the fifteenth, was not represented because Warring Wilkinson who expected to be present was detained on the steamer and did not reach Washington until the Conference had adjourned. In addition to the usual business, the following resolutions were passed regarding the articulation controversy.

Resolved, That the American system of deaf mute education, as practiced and developed in the institutions of this country for the last 50 years, commends itself by the best of all tests, that of prolonged, careful, and successful experiment, as in a pre-eminent degree adapted to relieve the peculiar misfortune of deaf-mutes as a class, and restore them to the blessings of society.⁷

Resolved, That in the opinion of this conference, it is the duty of all institutions for the education of the deaf and dumb to provide

⁷ *Proceedings*, 6:119

adequate means for imparting instruction in articulation and in lip-reading, to such of their pupils as may be able to engage with profit in exercises of this nature.⁸

Resolved, That while in our judgment it is desirable to give semi-mute and semi-deaf children every facility for retaining and improving any power of articulate speech which they may possess, it is not profitable except in very rare cases to attempt to teach congenital mutes articulation.⁹

Resolved, That to attain success in this department of instruction an added force of instructors will be necessary, and this conference hereby recommends to boards of directors of institutions for the deaf and dumb in this country that speedy measures be taken to provide the funds needed for the prosecution of this work.¹⁰

This meeting, called under unusual circumstances, appeared to be very successful; the advances made to the articulation or oral method were felt to have solved the whole controversial issue. Lewellyn Pratt, Editor of the *ANNALS*, reported the success of the Conference in glowing terms.

The practical results may be briefly summed up, as follows: the establishing of friendly relations among the Institutions in all parts of the country, thus securing unity of action; the practical settlement of the controversy respecting articulation, by giving it full opportunity in the established schools to show what it can do for the deaf-mute; the awaking of new interest in the perfecting of the language of signs; the enlistment of the hearty co-operation of the Institutions with the College for Deaf-Mutes; the opening of the means of continued interchange of views and opinions by the revival of the *ANNALS*; the preparation for a Convention of all interested in the instruction of the deaf and dumb; and, in general, a strengthened determination to carry forward the work of deaf-mute instruction in all departments—mechanical, academic, collegiate, social and religious—with life and liberality worthy of the great and free country we represent¹¹.

It may be noted that this meeting of executives is also called the First Conference of Executives. The explanation for this is given in a later *Proceedings*, as follows:

In point of fact, the 6th Convention, set for 1861, and postponed on account of the Civil War, was never held; but in consequence of questions arising during the interruption of the Convention,—a call was issued to the heads of the “regular institutions” to assemble in

⁸ *Proceedings*, 6:82

⁹ *Proceedings*, 6:83

¹⁰ *Proceedings*, 6:83

¹¹ *ANNALS*, 13:253-54

1868, "with a view of resuming these conventions." Instructors who were not principals participated in this meeting, and a committee of this body issued the call for the convention of 1870. The committee of Publications of the Proceedings of the latter body, DR. MacINTIRE, H. S. GILLET and J. C. GORDON, were unanimously of the opinion that the Conference of 1868, called under exceptional conditions, would be the last of its kind. Under this mistaken view, the Committee concluded to regard the First Conference as the Sixth Convention and numbered the convention of 1870, the *Seventh*¹².

Women were in evidence as members for the first time at the Seventh Convention. They, together with the deaf members, were given consideration in the appointment to committees. Matters discussed at this Convention in addition to usual business included the order of signs, religious education in the schools, compulsory attendance, and the day schools.

The Eighth Convention was held outside the United States in Ontario, Canada. Religious education was emphasized and the subject of articulation was also one of greatest importance. Illustrative apparatus were exhibited for the benefit of the members.

At the Ninth Convention the length of papers was limited to a delivery time of thirty minutes. Younger teachers, directors and trustees, and deaf graduates of Gallaudet College took an active part in the proceedings. The deaf teachers criticized articulation which was defended by the women teachers of this method. In the interest of professional advancement a summer normal school was suggested. A bureau of information was established in order to acquaint administrators with teachers who desired jobs. The exhibits of literary, industrial, and art products started at the Eighth Convention were continued in the Ninth and thereafter.

At the Tenth Convention training of teachers through a normal institute in connection with the Convention and the advancement of the deaf through Gallaudet College were discussed. The Convention pledged its recognition and appreciation of what the college was doing and suggested

¹² *Proceedings*, 14:96-97, (footnote)

that Congress be petitioned to provide for the admission of girls to the College.¹³

James L. Smith in a "Historical Sketch of the Convention" given at the Twenty-sixth Convention said of the Eleventh Convention,

This last was one of the memorable of the early conventions. It was in the nature of a "see America First" convention. The delegates rendezvoused at Jacksonville, Ill. At Kansas City they took possession of a special train of Pullman cars for the cross-continent run. A stop of one day was made in Denver and of two days at Colorado Springs, during which the delegates visited the Garden of the Gods and a large part of them went to the top of Pike's Peak on horseback. The next stop was at Salt Lake City, where two days were spent in sightseeing, including a bath in Great Salt Lake for such as felt the inclination or the need for it. After the close of the convention at Berkeley, the greater part of the delegates went from San Francisco to Portland by ship. They made a steamboat tour of Puget Sound, and then went by boat up the Columbia River as far as The Dalles. A day at Helena, Mont., and a 3-day tour of Yellowstone National Park ended the tour¹⁴.

In the regular meeting, discussion of articulation led to the adoption of several very important resolutions presented to the Convention by E. M. Gallaudet. These were later included in the constitution together with provisos also adopted at the Eleventh Convention.

Whereas, the experience of many years in the instruction of the deaf has plainly shown that among the members of this class of persons great differences exist in mental and physical conditions and in capacity for improvement, making results easily possible in certain cases which are practically and sometimes actually unattainable in others, these differences suggesting widely different treatment with different individuals: It is therefore

Resolved, That the system of instruction existing at present in America commends itself to the world, for the reason that its tendency is to include all known methods and expedients which have been found to be of value in the education of the deaf, while it allows diversity and independence of action and work at the same time, harmoniously aiming at the attainment of an object common to all.

Resolved, That earnest and persistent endeavors should be made in every school for the deaf to teach every pupil to speak and read from the lips, and that such efforts should be abandoned only when it is plainly evident that the measure of success attained does not justify the necessary amount of labor: *Provided*, That the children who are given to articulation teachers for trial should be given to teachers who are trained for the work, and not to novices, before saying that

¹³ They were admitted in 1887 as an experiment which was so successful that they have been admitted ever since. *Proceedings*, 13:46.

¹⁴ *Proceedings*, 26:64

it is a failure: *And Provided*, That is a genreal test be made and that those who are found to have sufficient hearing to distinguish sounds shall be instructed aurally¹⁵.

The Executive Committee, in its report acted favorably on suggestions of E. A. Fay, Editor of the *ANNALS*, and Miss Rogers of Clarke Institute and recommended that the words "and dumb" be dropped from the *AMERICAN ANNALS OF THE DEAF AND DUMB* and "The Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf and Dumb." This was put to a motion and carried unanimously.

An innovation at this Convention, which had been included in most Conventions since then, was a normal department for the discussion of teaching problems. This was the result of action taken by the Executive Committee on a resolution passed at the previous Convention. The sections provided for, and conducted by experienced and widely known teachers, were kindergarten, oral instruction, language for primary and intermediate classes, arithmetic, geography, natural science, history, aural instruction, and art.

The Twelfth Convention was also the first International Convention held in America. However, the foreign members, with the exception of those from Canada, failed to appear so that the Convention was no more international than those preceeding it. One criticism of this Convention was that there were so many papers given that there was no time for discussion. A normal department consisting of several sections was again a feature of this Convention. An oral section was formed at this Convention for the promotion of articulation teaching. In addition to the oral section a society was formed for the purpose of promoting the teaching of speech in all schools for the deaf in America. Dr. Alexander Graham Bell promised the organization \$25,000 as soon as incorporation and other necessary organization was completed.

The Thirteenth Convention was held at the Chicago World's Fair, in 1893, at the time of the quadricentennial celebration of the discovery of America. The Convention was held in connection with the Worlds Congress of In-

¹⁵ *Proceedings*, 26:xiii

structors of the Deaf. In the brief business meeting the feasibility of reorganizing the Convention was discussed. A committee on this subject reported:

Your Committee recommend, therefore, that the Convention make overtures to the American Association to Promote the Teaching of Speech to the Deaf, looking to such a change of name with an enlargement of objects as shall render further meetings of the Convention unnecessary¹⁶.

Up to this time, over a period of forty-five years, the Convention was an informal body without legal status or permanent organization. Steps were taken at the Fourteenth Convention to remedy this situation. Dr. E. M. Gallaudet, before submitting the constitution to the Convention, explained that overtures had been made to the Association and had been declined. In strong terms he accused Dr. A. G. Bell and the Association of deliberately attempting to discredit the National College, to prevent the establishment of a normal department, and to abolish the Convention, all for the cause of advancing pure oralism to the exclusion of all other methods, however successful they might be. He accused Dr. Bell of "unprofessionalism" and willingness to profit by misrepresentation and said that he was menacing the harmony and prosperity of the profession.

Dr. Bell in reply said that he was sorry that personalities had been allowed to come before the Convention. He maintained that he had a perfect right to do what he thought best and proper in the interests of the deaf. When he had concluded, it was suggested that he and Dr. Gallaudet shake hands, which they did amid the cheers of the Convention.

The constitution was then submitted and adopted after a few amendments had been added. Under the terms of the new constitution an election of officers was held. These officers became the Standing Executive Committee, the representative of the Convention when not in session, and the elected officers of the next Convention. Later it was resolved that this committee should file proper articles of

¹⁶ *Proceedings*, 13:293

incorporation under the laws of any state or district it might choose.

Control of the ANNALS was placed under the direction of a committee of the Conference of Superintendents and Principals of American Schools for the Deaf (Conference of Executives of American Schools for the Deaf) by the adoption of a resolution to that effect.

Between the Fourteenth and Fifteenth Conventions the Convention through the efforts of Dr. Gallaudet became incorporated by special act of Congress and its proceedings have since that time been published as a public document at Government expense. The officers elected at the Fourteenth Convention became the incorporators.

At the Fifteenth Convention sections were organized for the discussion of various topics, such as the normal, industrial, oral, art, auricular, and kindergarten sections and the Eastern, Western, and Southern local committees. At this and following Conventions the program consisted largely of papers, discussions, and demonstrations devoted to these sections. The business sessions were generally short and were chiefly reports of various committees.

Between the Fifteenth and Sixteenth Conventions an effort was made to merge the Convention and the American Association. But since there was no agreement the merger fell through.

At the Sixteenth Convention a teacher's bureau was established to assist schools in obtaining teachers and to assist teachers in obtaining positions.

A committee was appointed at the Seventeenth Convention to investigate and recommend a course of study covering ten years with suitable textbooks for the deaf. It was agreed that the education of the deaf should be part of the public school system and not charity.

It was recommended at the Eighteenth Convention that the programs of the Conventions be prepared a year in advance and that papers be submitted on assigned topics several months before the Convention. A Committee was also appointed to prepare a statement for public dissemi-

nation to combat widespread and erroneous public opinion about the deaf.

Section conferences (round table talks with a member as a leader) were an innovation of the Nineteenth Convention. Questions intended to stimulate discussion were prepared for these conferences in each section.

At the Twentieth Convention, committee reports were received from the bureau of information, committee on a better way of financing the Convention, and the industrial section committee on occupations and earnings of the deaf.

The Twenty-first Convention was held in Hartford in 1917 on the hundredth anniversary of the founding of the Hartford School. The Convention at this meeting asked to be relieved of its indebtedness and obligations to the AMERICAN ANNALS.

In 1920, the Twenty-second Convention was held at Mt. Airy, Pennsylvania, to celebrate the Centennial of the Pennsylvania School. This was a joint meeting of the Convention, the Association to Promote the Teaching of Speech to the Deaf, and the Society of Progressive Oral Advocates.

The Twenty-third Convention went on record as being opposed to employment or discharge of employees of schools for the deaf on the grounds of political affiliation. They also protested against restrictions on motor licenses solely on the grounds of deafness.

It was recommended at the Twenty-fourth Convention that committees from each organization for the deaf meet to discuss "federation" of the three bodies. Certification of teachers was referred to a special committee. This Convention also affirmed the action of other Conventions regarding the subject of motor licenses.

The general recommendations of the Twenty-fifth Convention were largely in the industrial field. The members opposed discrimination against the deaf in the matter of industrial insurance. It was also resolved that girls should have vocational training instead of institutional work. A

resolution was adopted that Gallaudet College be urged to expand its research facilities.

At the Twenty-sixth Convention resolutions were passed on the subjects of motor licenses, summer schools for the deaf teachers, improvements needed in the industrial departments, and the expansion of Gallaudet College.

Certification of teachers of the deaf was one of the main topics at the Twenty-seventh Convention. The Convention appealed to the Conference of Executives, as the official organization, to take speedy action on this matter. The Conference, in a business meeting, adopted a constitution and took initial steps toward becoming incorporated, so that it would have legal powers and permanent organization in order to be the certifying agency of teachers of the deaf.

The Twenty-eighth Convention held in 1933, was also the International Congress on the Education of the Deaf. The Congress was composed of the Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf, the Association to Promote the Teaching of Speech to the Deaf, the Conference of Executives of American Schools for the Deaf, and the Society of Progressive Oral Advocates. There were also foreign representatives present. After a general meeting, each organization held individual meetings. The Convention at this time adopted changes in the constitution which changed the standing committees in order to make the whole program more functional. The new committees were 1. supervision, 2. preschool and kindergarten, 3. speech development, 4. auricular training and rhythm, 5. curriculum content, 6. vocational training and art, 7. health and physical education, 8. social and character training, and 9. publications.

The theme of the Twenty-ninth Convention was "Progress Through Research and Cooperation." This meeting was also a joint meeting of the Convention, Association, Conference, and the Society. The newly formed sections of the Convention held various discussions on their particular interests.

At the Thirtieth Convention, held at the Teachers' College of Columbia University, demonstrations of school

room work were given by outstanding teachers in various subjects each morning of the Convention period. Six hundred and thirty persons were registered for this Convention. The question of helping to finance Dr. Harry Best's new book on the deaf and provision for training Negro teachers of the deaf were discussed. These questions were referred to the executive committee.

The theme of the Thirty-first Convention was "Curriculum, Character and Citizenship." At the business meeting a committee was appointed to study the matter of increased teacher membership on the board of directors. Added teacher participation was secured by creating the office of Second Vice President. Miss Elizabeth Peet of Gallaudet College was the first to hold this new office. Following Conventions have also elected women to this office.

A full section on art was added at the Thirty-second Convention and the deaf teachers also held meetings each day although they were not formally organized as a section. Resolutions were approved adopting measures of cooperation with the National Association of the Deaf and furthering the establishment of a Federal Bureau of the Deaf in the Department of Labor. Nomenclature difficulties resulting in inaccurate taking of the census was given as one reason why the deaf were not included in a special section of the 1940 census. The theme of this Convention was "Molding Educational Opportunities for the Deaf for the World of Tomorrow with the Tools of Today."

There were no meetings of the Convention during the war period; the following notice appeared in the *ANNALS* in 1942.

In cooperation with the war effort and at the request of the Director of the Transportation Division of the Federal Government, the Executive Committee of the Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf has postponed indefinitely the biennial meeting which was to be held in St. Augustine in 1943.¹⁷

The *Proceedings* of the Thirty-third Convention held in St. Augustine, Florida in 1947, have not been published at this writing. The business of the meeting was largely

¹⁷ *ANNALS*, 87:393-94.

given over to the discussion of new trends which came about during and after the war and the need for reorganization. The theme was "Growth Through Understanding." A new section was included on visual education. The *Convention Bulletin* and the *Vocational Bulletin* were discontinued and their annual allotment was given to the AMERICAN ANNALS OF THE DEAF.

The Thirty-fourth Convention met at the Illinois School for the Deaf, Jacksonville, Illinois, June 19-24, 1949. The theme of the Convention was "A Century of Service to the Deaf Child." One section of this meeting was devoted to Audiology. An address "Highlights in the History of the Convention" was delivered by Dr. Elizabeth Peet, whose grandfather and father had been active members in the Convention.

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II. ADMINISTRATION

THE papers concerning administration are so varied and pertain to such a vast number of topics that they have been arbitrarily divided into five categories. These divisions deal broadly with 1. the school, 2. the staff, 3. pupilage, 4. the executive, and 5. special problems.

Administration and the school.—An early committee report (2) recommended that the central authority of the institution should be in the hands of the principal. This committee further recommended that the principal should make the regulations and should have exclusive direction and control over the system of religious and intellectual instruction.

E. M. Gallaudet (3), at the Sixth Convention, called attention to many faults in the institutions; among those he mentioned were 1. employment of incompetent teachers at low salaries to economize, 2. deficiency of suitable textbooks, 3. limited courses of study in the primary grades, and 4. the need for kindergarten classes or schools. Sheridan (6), Crouter (7), and Dudley (8) at each of the next three Conventions also pointed out defects in the system of instruction. Crouter offered the following as remedies: more individual instruction, thoroughness and simplicity, longer school terms, postponement of the use of textbooks until the fourth year in school, and a state school system composed of many small schools throughout the state for primary instruction and one centrally located school for higher education.

Gillett (4) (5), at the Seventh and Eighth Conventions, discussed various aspects of organizing a new school for the deaf.

G. C. Fay (9), at the Eleventh Convention, said that the institution must be a home as well as a school. He said that the schools should be properly equipped and that teachers and officers should be persons of high moral character. Talbot (11) and Robertson (12) also discussed the family life of the schools at the Thirteenth Convention. Euritt (13) led a discussion at the Nineteenth Convention on "How to Make Schools Homelike."

Johnson (14), at the Twentieth, and Pintner, (15) at the Twenty-second Conventions, were interested in measuring the efficiency of the schools and standardizing them. Pintner said,

The attempt to standardize and the use of scales in the process of standardization will lead us to a better understanding of the pupils with whom we have to deal; and knowing the pupils better, we shall be better able to construct an adequate curriculum and define the goal of education, and with a more definite aim and better curriculum, methods of teaching can be more adequately adjusted and the work of the teacher more justly evaluated. In short, we shall know more, and, knowing more, we shall have power to accomplish.*

Dr. Ellis (16), speaking at the Twenty-eighth Convention, said that the public must be made aware of deafness. He stressed continuous education of the public in problems of the handicapped and expansion of knowledge through research in both the residential and public schools.

Administration and the staff.—The early teachers of the deaf were all men; Clerc and later others were also themselves deaf. The question of whether there should be equal compensation for deaf and hearing teachers was a subject of some discussion after a paper given at the Fifth Convention by John Carlin (17), who advocated equality. When women entered the field, there was doubt as to their value. Miss Trask (18) defended the women teachers and offered many reasons why they were adapted for teaching the deaf. W. W. Walker (21) discussed compensation of teachers from the viewpoint of the superintendent and concluded that moral standards and the social system would suffer if men were not given a greater compensation than women. He told the members of the Eighteenth Convention that industrial teachers who were really teachers should

* 22:169.

receive compensation approaching that of the academic teachers. This subject is also discussed in the chapter on vocational education.

Various programs and ideas have been presented at the Conventions on plans to aid the teachers and improve the teaching standards. Johnson (22) discussed teachers' pensions at the Nineteenth Convention and this was referred to committees in both the Convention and the Conference. McIntire (31) gave a report of the Committee on Annuities and Pensions at the Twenty-ninth Convention. He reported that sixteen states had pension systems from which teachers of the deaf could benefit.

Certification was discussed several times at the Conventions. Dr. Long (26) suggested a plan for certification at the Twenty-seventh Convention which he recommended be administrated by the Conference of Executives. Mrs. Riggs (27) discussed this paper and said that the certification plan should provide for all groups of teachers engaged in the education of the deaf. It was resolved at this meeting to turn the certification problem over to the Conference. Dr. Bjorlee, at the Twenty-ninth Convention, gave a Conference Committee Report on Certification. He told of the work of the committee from its formation in 1924 up to the time the Conference became a corporate body in order to be the certifying agency of the profession (28).*

At the next Convention he again reported for the Conference Committee on Certification and told of the work that had been accomplished by the committee (32). Reeder (36) at the Thirty-third Convention, suggested that there should be national system of reciprocity so that teaching experience and credit toward retirement would not be lost to teachers who changed from schools in one state to schools in another.

Teacher training in connection with regular school work was discussed by Numbers (25) at the Twenty-fifth Convention. He indicated that there were many disadvantages for an administrator in connection with this sort of system.

* See Chapter I, The History of the Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf.

The duties and responsibilities of field officers were presented at the Twenty-third Convention by Crouter (23) and Booth (24). Booth said that at this time (1923) ratios of children from schools for the deaf per 100,000 population varied so much from state to state that many pupils must not be in the schools. He advocated the use of a field officer as the best method of getting pupils into schools.

At the Thirtieth Convention Dr. Hall (33) gave a review of the problems that were under consideration by the Conference of Executives.

Supervision of new teachers and supervision of pupils were discussed in the Conventions on several occasions. The duties and responsibilities of supervisors were discussed by Ziegler (19) and Hasenstab (20) at the Eleventh Convention. They made it clear that the supervisors have a great responsibility as the children are under their care much of the time. They emphasized the importance of the supervisor in the educational system. Miss Hale (35), at the Thirty-second Convention advocated the formation of a national association of supervisors. Coburn (2), Jones (30), and Chatwin (34) discussed some of the problems and duties of supervising teachers.

Administration and the pupil.—One of the early problems of the schools for the deaf was how to get the pupils to school. Talbot (37) told the Fifth Convention that there were two types of parents in regard to the attendance of their children. One group of parents tried to put their children in school as early as possible to start their learning and to keep them out of trouble. The other group did not want to send their children to school because they did not want to send their children away, because they were too poor or because they wanted the children at home to work. Tate (41) later, in 1886, said that one-half of the deaf were not educated for the following reasons: 1. parents were over affectionate to afflicted children and would not allow them to be separated, 2. parents did not realize the need of the pupils, 3. parents were ignorant of the schools and their advantages, 4. parents kept children at home to work for them, and 5. parents felt pupils had enough education

after two or three years in school. He suggested compulsory attendance laws as a solution to this problem.

Other suggestions were given in the discussion following this paper. Some of the most important of these are as follows: use of demonstrations throughout the state, personal contact with parents through letters, inviting the public to visit the school, and the employment of recruiting officers. Noyes (38) and Hammond (40) also gave reasons why there should be compulsory attendance laws for deaf children.

The attendance problem also affected the classification of pupils. Talbot (37), in 1868, said that the remedy for classification problems was in having children enter school at the proper age. This age, according to his suggestions, should be ten years for boys and twelve years for girls, no older than this and no younger unless it was necessary to break up bad habits and associations. Later, at the Eighth Convention he recommended that pupils should be classified according to uniformity in age, talent, attainments, intellect, and ability (39). Blattner (45) discussed the ideal number of pupils for both manual and oral classes. He suggested eight for oral classes and ten to twelve for manual classes with the primary classes smaller in each system. He said that classes were too large due to increased pupil attendance and little or no increase in funds. Archer (46) told the Twenty-ninth Convention that crowded conditions at the Illinois School had forced a change in the system of classification. Standard achievement tests were used as a basis for classification. Those below grade and overage were put into ungraded classes; the others were put into well classified groups. This system also allowed the pupils some choice of subjects, with successful work in forty credits required for graduation.

G. M. McClure (42) and Clarke (43) discussed the subject of rotating classes at the Fifteenth Convention. Arguments for and against this system were given.

Administration and the administrator.—Echols (47), at the Ninth Convention, discussed the duties and responsibilities of the trustees of institutions for the deaf. He said

that the board should make the legislature support the school in such a way that it will reflect credit to the state. He contended that the board should not interfere with the duties of the executive head. He maintained that salaries should be equal to the education needed and work involved and deplored the low salaries of teachers of the deaf. Lindsay (52), in a paper given at the Twentieth Convention, said that the board should be as non-political as possible.

The "spoils system" and influence of politics in the schools were heatedly discussed at many Conventions. Judge Mott (49) said emphatically, at the Thirteenth Convention, that only character and fitness should be the method of appointment to positions in the schools. Proctor (50), at the same Convention, emphasized that education should be so effective and influential that the state would anticipate its needs and politicians would not dare to tamper with educational problems or personnel.

Cleary (51), speaking at the same Convention, said that political changes in the school are sometimes good in that they bring about changes that were long delayed and bring new life to the institution. Gemmill (53) explained the "Iowa Idea" to the Twenty-third Convention. This plan was an attempt on the part of one state to keep the schools free from political influence.

Administration and special problems.—The problem of discipline is one that recurs at various Conventions. Gillett (56), at the Sixth Convention, said that the superintendent must assume that responsibility of maintaining discipline and settling differences of opinion for two reasons: 1. because he stands "in loco parentis" and has a responsibility for the child and 2. because he is the only one familiar with all the departments of the school. He told of various means of enforcing discipline in those days and stated that the rod was the last resort. He used instead,

. . . Demerit marks, private and public reprimands, temporary imprisonment, deprivation of a meal, withholding favorite articles of diet, the assignment of an onerous task requiring continued and fatiguing physical effort, . . . '*"

*6:42.

Gillett also stated that pupils should not be expelled as that is a sign of failure and means that the pupil is cut off from all hope of intellectual and moral improvement. The means of affecting discipline were also discussed by Patterson (59) at the Nineteenth Convention and Mrs. Birek (61) at the Twentieth. They both agreed that discipline by others means than punishment is desirable. Stanley Harris (66), at the Thirty-third Convention, emphasized that discipline is not punishment and that punishment is used only when discipline has failed.

The feeble-minded deaf were discussed at two Conventions. Milligan (58) told the Eighteenth Convention that there are three feeble-minded children to every deaf child in our population. A portion of his paper was devoted to a description of the symptoms of feeble-mindedness. He said that no feeble-minded children should remain in the schools for the deaf. He also recommended that backward children should 1. be in small classes, 2. have their own textbooks, 3. have good teachers, 4. have manual training emphasized, and 5. not be deprived of signs. He added that about twenty per cent of deaf children are backward mentally and that these must be carried to the limit of their capacity.

Miss Edith Fitzgerald (60) led a discussion on the feeble-minded deaf at the Nineteenth Convention; her recommendations were similar to those of Mr. Milligan. There was difference of opinion, however, in the discussion that followed, as to which pupils should be accepted in the schools for the deaf.

Moore (62) and Ingle (63), at the Thirty-first Convention, discussed the administration of extracurricular activities in the school. Miss Craig (64) discussed the role of the supervising teacher in intercurricular activities at the Thirty-second Convention.

Many of the administrative topics are discussed at the Conference of Executives and for this reason unless the two groups meet at the same time, administration will not be as important a topic as it was formerly in the Convention.

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III. ART

Douglas Tilden of California presented a paper to be read at the Twenty-first Convention, in 1917, on *The Value of Art to the Deaf*. A sculptor and himself deaf, Mr. Tilden impressed upon his audience the vital need for art in the curriculum of a school for the deaf. He said of the deaf child.

While learning to draw he is led on to get interested in higher and better things—to perceive what constitutes grace, which we know as the principle of beauty . . . a capacity for understanding and enjoying beautiful things would form a precious possession for any deaf graduate and should be just as much his heritage as any hearing person's.**

He stated the fact that man wrote in pictures before he spoke or used a written language, that it is basic in man to draw (22).

There are a variety of approaches to the subject of art education presented by speakers at the Conventions. It was generally agreed, however, that art does have a necessary and vital place in educating the whole child. It has been intimated by some writers of papers that the deaf, being deprived of one sense, often develop to a greater degree the visual and tactile senses. Mrs. Sylvia Chapman Balis at the Eighteenth Convention said that "The deaf with their observant eyes and power of concentration, are particularly qualified for artistic callings (14)."'*** At the Fifth Convention, Collins Stone stated that the deaf "have

** 21:87

*** 18:182

a peculiar susceptibility for improvement in this art (2).’’** He believed that they become close and accurate observers because of the constant exercise of their perceptive faculties; with suitable instruction they may succeed as accomplished draughtsmen (2).

David D. Smith (5) of the Illinois School, in 1893, believed that as much thought and money should be spent on art for the deaf as on music for the blind.

As early as the Fourth Convention, in 1856, H. S. Gillett stated that the drawing of pictures aids the primary child in acquiring a steadiness of the muscles of the hand and arm which lays the foundation for facility in chirography and composition (1). While all the speakers placed emphasis upon both the practical and the aesthetic aspects in teaching art to the deaf, some lean more toward one aspect than the other. It is interesting to note through the years the gradual change in the methods of teaching art, a change from a system of imitative exercises or drills in drawing and painting toward the method of encouraging the child to express *himself* creatively. There is also noted a change from the drawing and painting of useless “pretty” objects in a conventional style of the time to a more practical application of basic art principles in everyday living.

The first real information concerning regular instruction of art in the class room occurring in the *Proceedings* is found in a discussion on “Instruction In Art,” led by Mrs. A. J. Griffith of the Illinois School for the Deaf, at the Eleventh Convention, in 1886 (4). At this School, elementary instruction was given for fifteen minutes once a week to children who had been in school over three years. The method was one whereby the child imitated the teacher in drawing vertical and horizontal lines, first with a ruler, then without a ruler; learned to measure by inches; drew squares, diagonals, and other geometric designs for the first two years. The third year was devoted to the drawing of curved lines, circles, diameters, and the fourth, to the drawing of right angles, triangles, and other geometric figures. Children who showed special ability after four years were

** 5:135, in reference to the art of drawing.

placed in advanced art classes from one to two hours a day where they executed cast drawings in charcoal and crayon from models, sketched from life and nature, for two to three years. No shading was done until the second year. They were taught clay modeling and wood carving, crayon portrait work, oil and water color techniques (4).

The Wisconsin School for the Deaf also included geometric drawing in their course of art work. In addition, the lower grades were given blackboard work and free-hand drawing (4). Drawing from memory was encouraged (4) (5) (22).

Madame LePrince from the New York Institution for the Deaf and Dumb pointed out that drawing is a necessity or help in nine out of ten trades. She emphasized the study of technical art as the foundation for the industrial arts, not so much fine arts training but industrial arts. She suggested a study in the use of various media, colors, processes, and a careful study of copies of the best works of artists and artisans from ancient to modern times. Madame LePrince ardently opposed the system of spending long hours on geometric design. She encouraged, rather, carrying real things into the class room in order to teach children to to express beauty and texture of objects, plays of light and shade. The teacher, she believed, should demonstrate for the pupils with charcoal and chalk on the slate. She insisted that the pupils learn *form*. "Let us learn to '*see*,' and teach '*seeing*' to our young pupils.*

Rulers were not used in her class room. A child should not be taught to draw outlines, but to draw light and shade masses, the *things as he sees them*. Copying was not allowed since

... it helps to propagate false and impractical notions of art, and becomes mere food for vanity on the part of pupils and parents . . . and superintendents of deaf-mute institutions.**

Madame LePrince advocated that primary classes, even five and six-year olds, have one hour per week of art and higher classes one hour or more per week. The gifted from

* 11:198

** 11:200

the second grade were given to special training classes where they were taught art-crafts. It appears that Madame LePrince had a more modern approach to art education than most other teachers in her field at this period (4).

At the Eighth Convention, in 1893, three teachers of art contributed papers on the subject, "Art in the Cultivation of the Imagination." David D. Smith, of the Illinois School, stated that the quickest and surest instruction of techniques should be given so that if imagination exists it may be given a chance to grow strong and be productive. He contended that color work is neither practical nor necessary in training pupils for positions in art and design, but that simple principles of light and shade and proportions should be taught in charcoal or pencil. Subjects should be everyday things that show use and have a peculiar character of their own. Begin with simple subjects and progress to the more complex, e.g., cast drawing, then life drawing. He, too, recommended drawing from memory as beneficial (5).

Madame LePrince, writing on the same subject as Mr. Smith, stressed that an artistic environment is essential in keeping the mind of the child in a receptive condition and acting as a support and inducement to further expression. Grouping of furniture, wall decorations, window hangings, and blackboards should be tastefully arranged. If everyday surroundings are military and traditional, imagination will be lacking. Before art can be produced, life conditions must be favorable. She suggested beginning in the kindergarten by giving the child a lump of clay to work with and letting him express his imagination in a purposeful form. Copies and patterns should never be provided. ". . . once the copying instinct is fostered, imagination is weakened in proportion.* (6).

Isabel R. Carroll of the Arkansas School for the Deaf, a third writer on the subject of "Art in the Cultivation of the Imagination," pointed out that art draws out and builds up the mind of the child to reach out after better things. "The child mind teems with images, beautiful, gro-

* 13:161

tesque, fearful. Art is the open sesame to this world of fancy . . . ”**

Miss Carroll pleaded that teachers should not banish these fancies but, through training and discipline, bring order out of chaos and teach the child beauty of form and color. She referred to art as “The handmaid of imagination (7).”

Miss Lolo C. Hine of the Lexington School, at the Seventeenth Convention, in 1905, suggested that a deaf child needs manual work more than a hearing child because he is more apt to let his creative faculties go to waste. At that time the art program at the Lexington School consisted of developing the child’s dexterity through the use of tools and encouraging accuracy in measuring, object drawing, drawing free-hand circles, ellipses, and curves. She suggested ambidextrous drawing on the blackboard as valuable. Much of the program was devoted to “making things,” such as bags in which to keep tools, portfolios, basketry work, beadwork, in addition to learning the use of media such as clay, water color, charcoal, and crayons (12).

At the Utah School the art program in 1908 was on a broad basis as described by Max Woodbury. He believed the program should reenforce all other subjects of study—history, geography, and literature. Clay modeling and sand were used by the youngest children because a little child can use these free and natural forms easily in expressing his imagination. The first drawings made should be in color with chalks or crayons. In the second year the work was done mostly in color with some charcoal. Watercolors were taken up in the third and fourth years. Design was a part of the program and the first problems included the design of boxes, bookcovers, books, and pottery (13).

Correlating art with other subjects and activities in the school and the community has been advocated at many of the Conventions (13) (21) (35) (50).

In connection with the teaching of design mentioned in Mr. Woodbury’s paper, another paper on the subject of “Design Work,” in 1923, deserves notice by Mrs. M. M.

** 13:163

Corey of the Montana School. This article stresses teaching that designs have a meaning, the necessity for system in a design, and that design in an area should echo the shape of that area. Mrs. Corey employed nature and Indian designs as a source of ideas and applied these to interior decoration, wearing apparel, jewelry, and china. She showed how she created a market for the sale of the designs made by the pupils which proved to be a good experience for them and made the community aware of the capabilities of the children (29). There occur other papers including information on the teaching of design in addition to these mentioned (21) (44).

Professor Carl N. Werntz of the Chicago Academy of Fine Arts, in addressing the Nineteenth Convention, in 1911, expressed his idea that art is a "universal language for which no adequate translation exists."*

The theme of his address was that in the present day, art is a necessity to society, to science, to commerce and to business, and is an integral part of the lives of all people (15).

At a conference on primary art, in 1911, members of the Convention asked questions which were answered by Mary B. Beattie of the Michigan School. The following points were brought out in her answers: clay modeling and water-colors—red, yellow, and blue—were the medium used in her primary department; the periods were twenty minutes in length for the younger pupils, thirty to thirty-five minutes for the older group; silhouette work was done to a large extent with the first grades; first pose drawings were done with skeleton figures allowing only one-half minute, one minute, and one and one-half minutes. She mentioned that foremen in shops noticed a great difference in the pupils who had been taught art, in that they were more proficient and accurate in the use of their hands (16). This same idea has been noted by a number of other art and vocational training teachers.

A point brought out many times during discussions on art training by members of the Convention as well as in

* 19:58

papers by art teachers is that the object in art education is not to produce illustrators, painters and sculptors, but that children should have the advantage of art training on account of the great development, both mental and physical, which is gained by the child through such training. Little children should learn to draw because it is a form of expression. The more ways one has to express oneself the better educated he is (19).

In a discussion led by Miss Jennie I. Cade of Chicago, at the Nineteenth Convention, several suggestions were made about what media to use in beginning art work with small children. Since development always begins with large movements, clay modeling (not oiled) is good. Paper tearing, chalk and blackboard work, and sand table are practical. Have the children tell the important thing about the object they are drawing or modeling. Have them tell about the things they know; apply the work to the child's own experience (18).

In connection with art for beginners, Miss Kaufmann of Central Institute suggested a thirty to sixty minute period daily wherein the child can express himself. This provides opportunity for him to compensate, to some extent, for his lack of vocal expression (51). Miss D. Frances Kauffman, New York, discussed the art expression of children from two and one-half years through nursery school (47). It has been generally agreed that art, for the nursery school child, provides another means of expressing himself, paves the way for the acquisition of new words, stimulates his imagination, and develops his creative ability.

Miss Helen E. Cleaves of the Boston Public Schools addressed the Twenty-second Convention, 1920, on the subject of "Art As A Means of Education." She discussed teaching design, lettering, and composition of picture making. She advised staying away from still life drawing and teaching perspective only when it comes up (21).

Douglas Tilden's outline for classroom work was, briefly, 1. drawing from plaster casts in charcoal, 2. work with clay, 3. Japanese system of drawing from memory, 4. art talks in the class room to kindle pupils' enthusiasm (22).

Mr. E. S. Bolander, Director of the Columbus Gallery of Fine Arts, in discussing the phases of art held a different opinion concerning the teaching of perspective from various other teachers who presented papers. He believed that perspective is fundamental and should have first place in art instruction. He gave much importance to lines—horizontal, vertical, oblique, circular, and discussed his method on teaching students *how* to draw. He discussed a system of teaching art appreciation and recommended books which he found of value in connection with this teaching (31).

Miss Agnes Hammel, Supervisor of art at Winnipeg and Miss Margaret E. Fitzpatrick of the Indiana School presented papers on the subject of art appreciation at the Twenty-seventh and Thirty-second Conventions, respectively. Miss Hammel's article included methods of teaching this subject through grades one to eight and up and presented a study list of paintings and artists suitable for posting for the children's use (34). Miss Fitzpatrick's paper dealt with values derived from "Picture Study" (53).

A number of worthwhile papers have been written on the subject of the significance of art in everyday life, that is, art principles learned in the class room as applied to dress, home, and community. Such application makes living richer and better because of art training (32) (36) (37) (42).

Miss Elna J. Engstrand of the Beidler School, Chicago, presented a paper, "Creative Art," to the Twenty-ninth Convention, in 1935. Here is one of a number of papers dealing with this subject. Her paper is a plea that art be stressed as an emotional expression, that there be no restrictions, no rulers, compasses, margins to follow, but that children be given free reign. She explained how children can be guided to express themselves creatively and how to acquire an atmosphere conducive to creative art (40).

Interesting papers have been presented dealing with specific subjects in related arts, i.e., marionettes (52), poster work (54), photography (17), and penmanship (9).

A comparatively large number of papers were presented at Conventions, beginning with the Fifth Convention, on the subject of art in relation to vocations and trades for the deaf. A few of these deal with art itself as a vocation (48) (14) (20) (43), but the majority point out the advantages of art training as an asset in many of the other vocations (2) (11) (23) (24) (30). In some cases art departments work together with vocational departments in establishing a beneficial program for each. In this same manner there are papers dealing with the correlation of art with the home economics department, i.e., in foods, clothing, household decoration, personal relations and charm, textiles, architecture, and related subjects (50) (41) (45) (46).

James N. Orman, at the Twenty-ninth Convention in 1935, presented a paper concerning "Artists in the International Exhibition of Fine and Applied Arts by Deaf Artists" held at the Roerich Museum, New York City. This article mentions many well-known deaf artists and some descriptions of their executions. Represented there were works of the Aubiaurre brothers of Spain, Cadwallader Washburn, Ferdinand Hamar, Charles Bizard, Jean Hanau, Eulogio Blasco, Will J. Quinlan, Douglas Tilden (who is mentioned, but did not exhibit), and a number of lesser artists.

It should be noted that the writers of these papers did not necessarily confine themselves to the subjects designated in their titles. Some papers which seem to indicate by their titles one particular aspect of art contain worthwhile information on other phases of the subject of art. All are more or less interrelated and only a few deal with specific phases as indicated.

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IV. AURICULAR TRAINING

The use of instruments to increase the volume of sound to enable the deaf to hear has been practiced from very early times. Until the advent of electrical amplification, however, these were effective only with slightly hard of hearing persons. As early as the Eighth Convention, George Wing (1), a well-known hard of hearing teacher of the deaf, noted that there are a great many peculiar aspects to deafness. He pointed out, for example, that many deaf students could hear sounds but could not explain them. **He stated that he knew several congenital mutes who could hear better than he could in certain instances. Because of the many types of defective hearing, he believed that**

... Any number of examples might be given tending to show that

there are defects in the quality, as well as deficiencies in the quantity of hearing, and proving that attempts to teach articulation to mutes who are partially deaf, by means of acoustic instruments, would meet insurmountable obstacles.*

In the discussion following this paper, Dr. A. G. Bell suggested that ear trumpets and hearing tubes be used in schools. He said that he had used these with some degree of effectiveness in teaching semi-deaf students by articulation.

Job Williams (4), in a paper, giving a complete picture of the education of the deaf, at the Thirteenth Convention, said that

For a few years past auricular instruction has received not a little attention in some of the schools in the United States. It was first taken up systematically under Superintendent J. A. Gillespie, in the Nebraska Institution. By raising the voice to a loud pitch, and by the use of hearing trumpets, earphones, audiophones, and various other appliances, dormant hearing has been awakened and cultivated until some pupils, too deaf to understand anything through the ear on entering school, have been graduated as simply hard of hearing . . .**

Mr. Gillespie did not present any papers on his work to the Convention; however, in a discussion which he led at the Thirteenth Convention, he spoke briefly about a survey he had made. Replies from thirty-five schools indicated that hearing tests were given in twenty-two of the schools and that almost four hundred children in these schools were taught at least partially by aural methods. He defined aural teaching as trying to develop dormant hearing in children who are able to be taught this way. These, he estimated, at about fifteen percent of the school population. After this brief discussion he introduced Miss Plum's paper to the Convention. Miss Plum (2) explained the work being done by the use of hearing trumpets. She said that her procedure was like that of other teachers except that the material was given to the hearing as well as to the lips and to the mind of the deaf child.

At the Eleventh Convention, Currier (3) discussed experiments with a hearing device called a duplex ear piece which was composed of two conventional tubes united so

* 8:147

** 13:13

that the pupil could hear his own voice as well as the voices of others. The conventional tubes used were the conico-cylindrical tubes, supposed to be the most powerful conductor of the human voice yet perfected (1886). Other hearing apparatus were discussed and described following this paper. Professor Clarke of the New York Institution explained the workings of the audiometer, audiophone and the American Conico-cylindrical tubes.

At the Fourteenth Convention, R. S. Rhodes (5), the inventor of the audiophone, described and explained the workings of this device. The instrument was fastened to the teeth where sound vibrations were picked up. Rhodes estimated that forty percent of the deaf children in schools would have enough hearing to profit from the use of this device.

W. F. Taylor (7), at the same Convention, discussed auricular teaching; he said that children must learn to associate something with the sound. He maintained that the deaf must first learn sound by itself and that this sound must be associated with an object which means something to the child. In teaching words he suggested the following order: 1. the object, 2. the picture, 3. the written form 4. speech reading, 5. hearing it, and 6. speaking it themselves.

Currier (9) gave a brief history of auricular work and the various devices used up to 1900, at the Sixteenth Convention. Among those mentioned were the audiophone, dentiphone, electrophone, ear trumpet, acoustic cane, audiometer, conversation tube, duplex ear tube, dentihyron and his own invention—the akoulalion. He also included a few statistics showing the growth of the acoustical method in American schools for the deaf.

Dr. Harris Taylor (15), at the Twentieth Convention, suggested dividing the deaf into three groups: 1. those who cannot hear, 2. those who recognize vowels, and 3. those who recognize words. He said that some children seem to make more progress with very little hearing than others who have a greater amount of hearing. In the discussion that followed his paper, Caroline Yale said that most teachers fail to realize that there are many congenital

deaf pupils with residual hearing. Mr. Goodwin also pointed out that a close check of ear, nose, and throat will sometimes improve hearing.

John Dutton Wright, founder of the Wright Oral School in New York, presented several papers to the Convention on the subject of auricular training. At the Twenty-first Convention, he said that it is easier to teach language and speech through faulty hearing than through sight and touch alone. He pointed out that the increased sound perception associated with auricular training is usually due to a greater ability to interpret sound. The procedure he suggested was as follows: 1. awaken attention to sounds, 2. show that sounds are associated with ideas, 3. build up a hearing vocabulary (18).

At the next Convention, Wright (20) explained the method of building a hearing vocabulary. He suggested that vowel sounds be taught first, then words such as ear, comb, and key associated with toy objects, and finally simple sentences. He said that hearing is seldom improved but that many children could learn to understand spoken language. It was his opinion that comprehension of spoken language was more a matter of brain training than of sound preception.

Dr. Max Goldstein (19) told the Twenty-second Convention of the acoustic method used at Central Institute for the Deaf. He pointed out that good results were obtained by this method but that lack of information by the teaching profession, lack of available literature, and lack of a practical and detailed working system had prevented it from becoming popular in other schools.

LaCrosse suggested, at the Twenty-third Convention, that there should be a standardization of terms and a standard audiogram in the field of auricular training (21). At the next Convention he again emphasized the need for standardization; he suggested the use of the 3A audiometer as a standard. He stated that the aims of auricular training were the following: 1. teaching vocabulary through the ear, 2. improvement of speech, and 3. increased activity in the psychic acoustic centers (27).

John Wright (28) gave teachers and parents some advice at the Twenty-fourth Convention. He said that they should speak into the ear of the child at every opportunity. The explanation for this he had given at previous Conventions.

The intensity with which a sound affects the ear varies inversely as the square of the distance between the ear and the source of the sound . . . *

. . . a word spoken with a certain volume or pitch an inch from a deaf child's ear will sound one thousand two hundred and ninety-six times as loud as it would if spoken three feet away.**

He was of the opinion that if this were practiced by more parents of deaf children, their children would come to the schools as hard of hearing instead of deaf.

At the Twenty-fifth Convention, Dr. Harvey Fletcher (29) explained that mere amplification is not enough to enable deaf children to hear. He showed that there must be a compensating device that would keep loud vowel sounds from drowning out the consonant sounds. He also pointed out that controlled amplification was necessary to protect the ears of the child from injury or pain.

Mattie Winston (30) gave a demonstration in auricular training at the same Convention. She used gross sounds at first, such as a whistle, a bell, and clapping the hands. From the recognition of these sounds she progressed to simple words such as car, comb, and key. When speaking to the children she used a firm full tone instead of shouting which produces distortion. Questions were asked and answered just as would be done with hearing children. The distance was gradually increased to three or four feet which is the normal conversational distance. During the period of actual training in auricular work the words were presented without speech reading; this is an additional aid which the children can use later when they get out among people.

John Wright (32), speaking at the Twenty-seventh Convention, pointed out as he had in the past that the child had to learn to understand spoken language and that hear-

* 21:124

** 22:83

ing sounds is not enough. He stressed the fact that the deaf must learn to hear ideas, not elementary sounds. For this reason he advocated the use of the unaided ear first, with the hearing aid used later to increase volume and distance.

Miss Mason (33) offered these methods of teaching auricular training to the Twenty-seventh Convention: 1. auditory stimulation by means of the human voice, 2. training perception of sound by electrical amplification, 3. training perception of sound by musical vibrations, and 4. training of tactile perception of sound through musical instruments, vocal cords, and vibration of the face.

A. C. Manning (34) advised the members of the Twenty-seventh Convention to be careful of fads and quackery in auricular training. He said, however that with good auricular training the results would be 1. development of a hearing vocabulary, 2. better speech, and 3. accelerated normal development.

In a panel discussion at the Thirteenth Convention, C. D. O'Connor (37) said that the objectives of auricular training were speech development, hearing vocabulary, esthetic development and pleasure, and the psychological boost. E. A. Stevenson in the same discussion maintained that the deaf child may be able to use hearing to correct speech but not to acquire language. He said that hearing aids are like glasses in that they are for corrective purposes only.

The use of acoustic training with and in rhythm programs was discussed by several speakers at different Conventions. Herschheifer (16), at the Twentieth Convention, told how the deaf could use musical vibrations as an aid to speech. Dr. Bjorlee (31), at the Twenty-sixth Convention, suggested the use of a piano as a valuable aid in auricular training. VanNest (36), at the Thirtieth Convention, discussed eurythmics. This subject was also discussed in a paper by Hilbert and Emerson (44). At the Thirty-third Convention, Corrington (58) and Parrish (57) discussed acoustic rhythm and rhythmic speech, respectively.

Auricular training programs in various schools and states were discussed and explained occasionally. The work of the

acoustic department of the Illinois School was thoroughly outlined and explained at the Thirty-first and Thirty-second Conventions by Cloud (38), Breakey (42), Johnson (51), and Bennet (52). Other schools systems of acoustic or auricular training programs were also discussed occasionally at the Conventions (13) (14) (17) (24) (25) (26).

The subject of hearing aids has become increasingly important in recent years. Several papers on this subject were given at the Thirty-first, Thirty-second, and Thirty-third Conventions. Knudeson (43), at the Thirty-first Convention in 1939, ventured a prediction as to the hearing aids of the future.

In the golden age of sound, hearing aids will be of the binaural type, will provide high quality amplification, will be free from excessive adventitious noise, and will be individually prescribed and fitted to each ear on the basis of audiometric and other pertinent tests, and they will be made available to all who need them.*

Watson (45), at the same meeting, discussed the improvements in hearing aids. He listed the following as modern improvements in hearing aids: 1. crystal microphones and phones (small, light, and true toned), 2. midget tubes (smaller batteries), and 3. reduction of the size of the other parts, (decrease in size increases the life of the batteries), Tillinghast (48), at the next Convention, stressed the need for a good testing program to establish proper classification of pupils. He said that the hard of hearing could be educated through the ear but that the deaf should have for their objectives—improved speech and speech reading.

Bodycomb (50) gave an excellent paper on the care, maintenance, and repair of hearing aids. She prefixed this part of her talk to the Thirty-second Convention with a short history of auricular development. She also reported the growth of auricular activities in the Pennsylvania School for the Deaf in Mt. Airy.

Galloway explained to the same Convention the purposes of the clinic opened at the New Jersey School to help adults in getting hearing aids. He said that the objectives and purposes of this program were to make hearing aid sales-

* 31:148

men adopt higher ethical standards and to restore confidence in hearing aids by the hard of hearing.

Other papers on various aspects of hearing aids were presented by Probyn (47), and Jellinek (49), at the Thirty-second Convention, and by Kranz (56), Westlake (55), and Whitehurst (54) at the Thirty-third meeting.

With the continued improvement of electrical amplification and the improvement in testing techniques in both schools for the deaf and in the public schools, there is an indication that the subject of hearing aids and auricular training will be of the greatest importance in the future.

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V. COURSE OF STUDY

Topics on course of study deal quite often with the subject matter fields. Many of these papers have been discussed under the various subject matter headings. The material discussed in this Chapter will cover the general papers on curriculum and course of study.

The earliest papers giving information as to course of study have been dealt with in the Chapters on Higher Education (1) (2) (10) (12) and in Language (3) (4) (6). These were concerned with what should be taught to the deaf or what was being taught.

It is interesting to note that such subjects as mental and moral philosophy, natural history, mathematics, astronomy, rhetoric, logic, ancient and modern history, and Latin were suggested as good courses for advanced pupils (1) (10). Morris (5), in an early paper recommended that natural history comprising sections of botany, minerology, geology, chemistry and zoology be taught. H. P. Peet (3), at the Second Convention, explained a complete course of language based upon books he had written. Keep (6) suggested that Goldsmith's *Unabridged History of England* was an excellent text to use in developing language and vocabulary studies.

Chase (11) in 1878, said that although the deaf learned

English, Latin, French, arithmetic, algebra, history, geography and physiology, these subjects did not prepare the deaf to be successful in the world. Chase desired more practical training to be given to the deaf; he recommended bookkeeping, business training, and mechanical trades.

Haskins (13), at the Tenth Convention first suggested a course of study to be used throughout the school. His idea was that teaching should be by principles rather than by presenting a mass of facts. He said that the whole school should follow this system of teaching by principles. He added that there should be a course of instruction for the whole school so that each individual teacher would know how far advanced pupils were when they came to him. There should be a regularly prescribed course of study for the teacher to follow. Haskins said that this was the difference between systematic instruction and haphazard instruction.

Elizabeth Taylor (15) told the Twelfth Convention that teachers should prepare their programs in advance, and that every minute of the school time should be used. Pupils who are kept busy are seldom discipline problems.

From the Thirteenth Convention in 1890 to the Twenty-ninth Convention in 1935 no papers were given specifically on courses of study. Papers given on subject matter were included under the heading of the subject. At the Twenty-ninth meeting however, there was a newly formed section on curriculum content; this section devoted many of its papers to a study of curriculum as well as various subject matter fields.

Among the papers given at the Twenty-ninth meeting were a report of the curriculum committee of the vocational section (16), a daily schedule for primary classes (17), and suggestions for a reorganization of the girls' vocational course of study (21). Woodward and Hammer discussed new trends in progressive education. Mrs. Woodward (18) showed how a unit was developed from the interests of the children. Miss Hammer (19) described how an activity program could be followed. Scarvie (20) told the convention that pupils should have a course in adult problems

to prepare them for life. In this course he would include human relations, business practice, use of leisure time, and household mechanics.

Weiting, (22) at the Thirtieth Conventon, said that education must be studied in its social, economic, and political relationships. He discussed such trends in curriculum revision as elimination of subject matter divisions, guidance, adult education, and scientific building of curriculum programs. He emphasized the need for recognizing individual differences.

Parks (24), at the Thirty-first Convention, told of some of the problems of the new curriculum. He said that compulsory attendance laws had brought a great many children of lower intelligence into the schools; these children must be taken care of, too, and each child should be given as much as he is able to do. He also suggested combining certain subjects into larger fields, i.e., language arts, health and happiness, social science, and others. MacDonald (27) also discussed the idea of correlating different subjects. He told the Thirty-first Convention that there were many opportunities for this sort of correlation in schools for the deaf, especially in the lower grades. Gough (26), at the same Convention, also stressed this idea. Gesner (28) showed how health could be correlated with other subjects in the project method.

Northrup (29) told the Thirty-first Convention that the deaf would always need subject teaching and the subject approach. She said that there should be correlation in the use of a modern series of textbooks throughout the school in various subject matter fields. Miss Joiner, at the next Convention, said that a good curriculum was needed to serve as a map to show teachers where they were going. She suggested that a practical outline of work that the teachers followed—careful grading of pupils, and good wholesome discipline—would solve many teaching problems.

Mrs. Rodgers (30) said that many deaf children are required to take courses that are of little value to them and

that they should be allowed to make a choice in the subjects they will take.

Nilson (25) explained to the Thirty-first Convention what the Ohio State School for the Deaf had done in their program of curriculum reconstruction. He told of their individual reports on students which replaced the ordinary report card. These reports contained subjective reports on the following: 1. special abilities, 2. attitudes, 3. special interests, 4. special problems, 5. best achievement, 6. illustrate behavior, 7. explain behavior. He said that there was great need for guidance in order that the children be prepared for life.

Other papers given at the Thirty-second Convention stressed educational opportunities (32) and achievement tests (33) in relation to the curriculum. Dr. Stevenson (34) and Miss Allen (35) discussed the curriculum in terms of the use of oral or non-oral methods at the Thirty third Convention.

The increased interest in the curriculum content section of the Convention promises that this subject will receive more attention at future Conventions.

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VI. DEAF-BLIND

Only occasionally throughout the *Proceedings of the Conventions* is the subject of the deaf-blind brought to the foreground. When these occasions arise, however, some very pertinent points are made and comments by certain

eminent authorities on the education of the deaf are worthy of notice.

At the Second Convention, in 1851, Issac Lewis Peet presented a paper on James Edward Meystre, a blind and deaf pupil from the Institution directed by Mr. Henri Hirzel, at Luzanne, Switzerland. At the age of eighteen years, Meystre began his education under the direction of Mr. Hirzel as described in interesting detail by Dr. Peet. He was instructed through the sense of touch, both manually (alphabet in relief, manual alphabet of Abbe de l'Epee) and orally (element method through imitation and use of a series of discs in graduated sizes). He was taught the trade of turner and proved adept with the saw and in woodworking (1).

At the Ninth Convention, in 1878, Isaac Lewis Peet was asked to tell something of two deaf and blind boys he had brought before an audience in New York the previous May. Dr. Peet told of one of the boys, age twelve, who made use of both the manual alphabet of Wait's system (puncturing paper so as to produce a tangible surface for the letters) by which he wrote and read very well. He mentioned that the lad had learned to express himself in idiomatic language and had made much progress with a private teacher. He explained also the method used with the other boy who was considerably more retarded (2).

An interesting and informative history was given at the Fourteenth Convention in 1895, by John Dutton Wright (3) on the "Education of Blind-Deaf Children". He described the methods used by various teachers both in the United States and abroad. James Mitchell, born in Scotland, 1795, was the first recorded case of a person born deaf-blind according to Mr. Wright. He was never educated and used natural signs for communication. Laura Bridgman, born in New Hampshire, in 1829, was the first deaf-blind person educated, according to Mr. Wright. Dr. Howe of the Perkins Institute instructed her through use of the raised alphabet and the manual alphabet. The next record of a deaf-blind person was Edward Meystre, mentioned previously by Dr. Peet (3).

In preparing his paper, Mr. Wright stated that he had met with forty-three educated deaf-blind persons. Twenty-four of these had been taught wholly without gestural signs, using only the manual alphabet and raised letters and palm writing. Ten had been taught partly by gestural signs. He contended that the use of signs was not necessary in deaf-blind instruction and that results were far better without their use. The first great step in deaf-blind instruction was accomplished by Dr. Howe in giving a command of grammatically constructed language. To this Hirzel added oral instruction. For forty years following Hirzel's method on oral instruction was used. In 1887-88, Hofgaard again taught speech and added speech reading. Wright pointed out that at the present time (1895) all deaf and blind students are taught both speech and speech reading (3).

In the appendix of the *Proceedings* of the Fourteenth Convention, in 1895, is an annotated list of between forty and fifty deaf-blind persons from the United States and foreign countries compiled by Mr. Wright. He estimated that at this time there were at least two hundred blind-deaf persons in this country and in Europe.

Miss Dora Donald, at the Fifteenth Convention, rendered an account of her instruction of Linnie Haguewood through signs, the manual alphabet and speech (5). Following this paper a discussion ensued as to whether the deaf-blind should be educated in institutions for the blind or for the deaf. It was suggested that they first be instructed in an institution for the deaf, then be removed to an institution for the blind because the language in the latter is very much superior. Others were of the opinion that only private instruction is satisfactory for the deaf-blind.

In discussion at the Sixteenth Convention, in 1901, under the leadership of Mr. William Wade, members discussed methods of teaching the deaf-blind and the advisability of establishing a school for their particular education (6). Mr. James Fearon, Principal of the School for the Deaf at Halifax, Nova Scotia, addressed the members of the Twenty-first Convention, in 1917, concerning a deaf-blind boy

in his school named Charlie Crane who was born in Vancouver, British Columbia, in 1906. He was bright, sensitive, and very spiritually-minded and had been taught by means of the manual alphabet spelled into his hand. He was taught speech through the sense of touch. After being in school six months he had a larger vocabulary than the average deaf child after five years instruction (at least 2,000 words). The natural method had been employed with him, all the teachers contributing to his education (8).

Methods of teaching the deaf-blind and the subject of establishing a school for the deaf-blind were again discussed at the Twenty-fifth Convention, in 1927, following a paper presented by Miss Sophia K. Alcorn on her method of teaching the deaf-blind. (9) Miss Alcorn was the teacher of Tad (Winthrop) Chapman and Oma Simpson and devised the Tadoma System which emphasizes vibration in the teaching of speech to the deaf. This method is referred to in the Bibliography on Speech, Chapter XXIX.

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VII. EDUCATION

The History and Progress of the Education of the Deaf. In the *Proceedings* of the First Convention is a forty page history of the early education of the deaf by H. P. Peet (1). This paper gives an excellent and complete account of the early teachers of the deaf and their methods. At the Fifth Convention Dr. Peet presented the second phase of this thesis, which considered the history and methods of

Samuel Heinicke, Thomas Braidwood, Charles Michel De L'Epee and their followers (3). Another paper of historical interest was "A Sketch of the Life of Baron De Gerando" given at the Second Convention by Edward Peet (2).

The history of the education of the deaf in America was presented at various intervals in the Conventions. Williams (5), at the Fifth Convention, discussed the early history of the first school at Hartford. A more complete history of the Hartford School was given by Perkins (11) at the Twenty-first Convention on the hundredth anniversary of the founding of that school. At the Thirteenth Convention, Job Williams (7) presented a general picture of the education of the deaf at that time (1893). He talked about the passing of the language of signs from the schools and the introduction of articulation. Gallaudet (8) at the next Convention, attacked the oralists for their narrow and extreme views and told of other developments in the education of the deaf from 1890-1895. At the Centennial Anniversary of the founding of the first school for the deaf in America (Twenty-first Convention) Hodgson (10) presented a paper on the early history of the education of the deaf in this country.

The most complete paper on the history of the education of the deaf in America was given at the same Convention by Jones (12). He presented a complete over-all view of the first hundred years of the education of the deaf in America. Included in his talk were such subjects as the following: founding of schools, age of admission, the College, vocations, athletics, publications, professional organizations, the deaf-blind, the partially deaf, day schools, religious and missionary work and other topics about the deaf and their education.

Driggs (13) addressed a paper to the Twenty-sixth Convention in which he discussed the history and present trends of day and oral schools. His paper was largely based upon the answers of twelve outstanding educators to these two questions: "What have been the forward steps in the education of the deaf during the last forty years?" and

“In your farseeing mind’s eye what are the several forward movements in the education of the deaf today”* At the same Convention, Smith (14) delivered a paper on the history of the Convention up to that date, much of which was taken from his own personal experiences.

Two recent papers, one by Horn and the other by Silverman indicated future trends in the education of the deaf. Horn (16), speaking at the Thirty-first Convention, discussed the education of the deaf from the viewpoint of an outsider. He listed many needs which he noted in the field. Several of the points he raised were the need for 1. guidance for parents and children, 2. an evaluation of the success of the oral method with any and all children, and 3. greater interest in the deaf by the medical profession. Silverman (17), at the next Convention, predicted improvement in the education of the deaf through the use of continued research and study.

Histories of various state schools were also given in the Conventions. These were as follows: Illinois (4), Minnesota (6), Wisconsin (9), and New Jersey (15); the history of the Hartford School has been mentioned previously.

Education: General.—General improvement of the systems of educating the deaf was the theme of many papers. G. O. Fay (23) at the Tenth Convention, discussed the various ways of educating the deaf; he felt that the teacher should teach by the method he thought best. At the same Convention, Goodman (25) discussed education in terms of 1. the pupils, 2. the institutions, 3. the methods, and 4. the teachers. He concluded that the teachers are the most important.

The mental condition of the uneducated deaf mute was the subject of three papers at the Thirteenth Convention. Porter (27) and Swiler (28) agreed that deaf children are much like hearing children and that their ideas of nature were much like those of savages. Downing (29) pointed out that the cause of deafness sometimes also affects the mind.

*26:10

Crouter (26), at the Sixteenth Convention, noted many defects in the system of educating the deaf. He suggested several possible remedies. Jones (30), at the Nineteenth Convention, made suggestions as to the best way to prepare the deaf for life. Hughes (33), in 1920, at the Centennial Anniversary of the Pennsylvania School at Mt. Airy, his alma mater, praised the education of the deaf but pointed out that there is a tendency to produce uniformity and lack of initiative.

Methods used outside the field of the education of the deaf were quite often introduced into the convention. "Pestalozzi and His Methods," was discussed by Jenkins (22) and "The Montessori Method," by George (32) at the Ninth and Twentieth Conventions, respectively. At the Twenty-third and Twenty-ninth Conventions, respectively, McDaniels (25) and Washburne (43) discussed the project method and progressive education.

A great many addresses and papers were presented on more recent educational theories and practices at the later Convention. These deal with such subjects as 1. objectives, 2. purposes, 3. trends, 4. needs, 5. philosophy, and 6. progress of modern education (37) (39) (40) (42) (45) (46) (49) (50) (52).

The subject of papers by Gruver (34) and Gray (36), at the Twenty-second Conventions, respectively, was backward children. Flowers (31) discussed the possibilities in the field of education for the Negro deaf at the Twentieth Convention.

Education as related to the state, country or world was presented in various papers to recent Conventions (41) (44) (48) (51). Gettle (47) pointed out to the Thirty-first Convention that most of man's improvements have been in material things and that there is great need for social, political, and economic improvement.

Mrs. Spencer Tracy (53) spoke on "The Role of the Parents in the Education of the Deaf," at the Tirty-third Convention. She explained how her correspondence course for parents was constantly improved by suggestions from both parents and children.

The use of visual aids was recommended by Hester (38) at the Twenty-eighth Convention. Hamilton (54), at the Thirty-third, explained the difficulties involved in getting satisfactory results from the use of movies.

Education and the Schools. The relationship that exists between the public schools and the schools for the deaf have been noted on many occasions. Gillett (55), as early as the Fourth Convention, pointed out that the methods used in schools for the deaf could be applied to great advantage in public schools. At the Twenty-second Convention, Dr. Rowland (72) emphasized that a good educational system recognized individual differences and that the deaf are part of the public school system just as anyone else. Tittsworth (77) told the members of the Thirty-second Convention that ideas taken from the public schools could be a great aid to little deaf children. She emphasized especially, materials for primary work such as doll houses, blocks, clay, wood, pictures, books, and kalsomine paints. Dunlap (74) presented another point of view at the Thirty-first Convention by pointing out how work with the deaf contributes knowledge to the larger problem of the education of hearing children.

Several papers have been presented about the relationship of deaf alumni to their alma maters. Patterson (63) and Allabough (64) agreed at the Thirteenth Convention that the conduct of alumni reflected the training and education they had received. McIlvaine (73), in a report on the alumni of the Pennsylvania School, stated that the deaf were above the general public in proportion of self-supporting persons and in the proportionate number that entered college.

Papers on morals, character building, and extra-curricular activities are properly considered in the Chapter on Social and Character Development, but are included here because of their educational implications. Social aids such as the school museums and notebooks were discussed at the Twenty-seventh and Twenty-ninth Conventions, respectively, by Tracy (65) and Long (66).

Education of the Deaf in Foreign Lands. One of the

more interesting aspects of the Convention were the occasional papers delivered by foreign educators or Americans who had observed foreign schools on the progress of the education of the deaf in other countries. At the Thirteenth Convention Ferreri (78) and Rosing (79) reported on education in Italy and Norway, respectively.

At the next Convention, Hintz (80) reported on data collected by the Volta Bureau regarding the education of the deaf in Germany, Austria-Hungary, Switzerland, France, Great Britain, Italy, Portugal, Scandinavia, Russia, and Australia. Included in the same *Proceedings* was a rather complete report of the institutions in Great Britain by Shaw (81).

Steinke (82) and Hobart (83) presented to the Fifteenth Conventions their observations of foreign schools they had visited in Europe. Wright (85), who traveled widely in his observations of schools for the deaf, delivered to the Twenty-fourth Convention, an interesting account of some of the one hundred and three schools he had visited. His visits took him to North and South America, Europe, and the Orient. He concluded from his observations that the difficulty of teaching speech lies in the difficulty of the English language which he considered more difficult for speech reading than Italian, German, Spanish or French.

Kawamoto gave interesting lectures concerning the education of the deaf in Japan at the Twenty-third (85) and Twenty-eighth Conventions (87). Banerji (84) summarized the work of educating the deaf in India for the Thirty-third Convention, Miss Breitwieser (88) at the Thirty-first Convention, explained the system of schools and educational devices used for educating the deaf in South Africa.

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VIII. HEALTH AND PHYSICAL EDUCATION

The emphasis on health and physical training at the Conventions is particularly noticeable during the last decade. Although early educators of the deaf were aware of the need for physical training, it did not receive a great deal of emphasis until the Twenty-first Convention, in 1939.

Swiler (1), at the Tenth Convention (1882), spoke of the need on the part of the deaf for physical training. He said that the disease which caused the deafness often weakened the body, and that the deaf had poor posture and health habits. Play was not enough; what was needed, he thought, was corrective exercises. He spoke of the new gymnasium at Gallaudet College and said that most schools for the deaf had no place or provision for physical training. Chickering (3) outlined the physical training program of Gallaudet College and explained its benefits to the members of the Eleventh Convention. He said that physical training provided an outlet for the boys and that fewer discipline problems were noted after this program went into effect.

From the number of papers given at the Twelfth and Thirteenth Conventions on this subject, it is apparent that the need for physical training and physical education was recognized (4) (5) (6) (7). As a substitute for expensive gymnasium equipment and facilities, Wilcox (7), in 1893, and J. H. Cloud (9), in 1895, suggested exercises that

could be given in the regular class room by the class room teacher.

From the early formal gymnastics the trend turned to athletics, dancing, and play. At the Twenty-first Convention, Miss Mathews (13) offered social dancing as a means of acquiring balance and lightness of movement—both special needs of the deaf. She said that physical training teachers should be specialists and should teach only in that field. Currier (13), at the same Convention, said that military drill is excellent training for the deaf since it procures mental alertness, bodily development, obedience to authority, and makes men.

In 1920, Arnold (14) criticized the old system of German exercises then in use in most schools as being artificial. This system developed powerful arm and shoulder muscles but did not produce grace, endurance or athletes. He recommended swimming as the most beneficial and healthful of all exercises. He also suggested dancing and rhythmical calisthenics for developing good coordination.

In 1929, at a round table discussion led by Lauritsen (18), it was resolved that physical training should be included in the curriculum and that it should be conducted on a scientific basis.

Brown(8), in 1895, informed the members of the Fourteenth Convention, that schools for the deaf needed courses in health and hygiene. He suggested that anatomy, diet, digestion, absorption, circulation and other bodily functions be taught in these courses. Dr. Anderson (10), at the Convention in Ogden, Utah, said that teachers should know and teach the relative value of foods, ventilation, and something about diseases caused by germs. He stated that exercise is preventive medicine and that good coordination aids in developing a good outward appearance and is conducive to mental health.

Dr. Harris Taylor (15), in his typical humorous way, told the Twenty-third Convention of the problems in developing a health program in the Lexington School for the Deaf. Wood (19), in 1933, said that the school plants for the deaf should be planned from the standpoint of vision

rather than hearing. He, as well as many others, recommended annual health examinations including tests of the physical, mental, emotional, and social conditions of the child. In addition, he said there should be examinations by a dentist and an otologist. A school nurse should be on duty at all times and the school should have a course in health in the curriculum. Speakers at more recent Conventions also emphasized the need for health programs and health education (26) (29) (34) (41).

Discussion of athletics, as such, was first noted at the later Conventions. Louis Burns, (21), at the Twenty-ninth Convention, said that few schools for the deaf had a program of physical training for all the pupils. Only the athletes were given much consideration. S. Robey Burns (22), at the same Convention, said that interscholastic sports produced the most normal relationships that the deaf have with hearing children. He stressed the importance of belonging to state athletic organizations and following their rules. The idea of sportsmanship is continuously stressed in these rules. Tell (32), two Conventions later, suggested that a national athletic association be formed by schools for the deaf. Tainsly (36), in 1939, told of the advantages of having a chapter of the Sportsmanship Brotherhood in schools for the deaf. He said many difficult situations could be avoided by appealing to the pupils' sense of sportsmanship.

Wetherbee, at the Thirty-first (33), and again, at the Thirty-third (43) Convention, discussed the advantages and disadvantages of participation in interscholastic athletic contests by deaf girls. She said that this competition is good for the girls if they 1.) play only girls rules, 2.) are well taught, and 3.) are physically fit, as determined by the school doctor. She said that the way competition is conducted will determine what the result will be. If conducted under ideal conditions, competition can be beneficial beyond measure.

Smith (37) reported to the Thirty-second Convention the findings of his survey of athletic associations in Southern Schools for the Deaf. He found that there was little student

participation in the associations. Most of these schools financed their athletics from the funds of the association; a few schools reported receiving state aid. At the same Convention, Harlow (38) gave a report of a special Convention Committee on Athletics. This Committee studied athletic association membership, maximum age and eligibility rules, and other factors of the athletic programs of fifty-six schools for the deaf. Less than one-third were members of state athletic associations. As a condition for participation in athletics, most schools had a maximum age of twenty-one and four years of eligibility. Earlier, Anderson (16), in 1925, had suggested that rules for athletic participation should include scholarship and eligibility limited to a few years.

Several coaches and instructors emphasized certain sports or phases of athletics as being of interest and value to the deaf. Ramsey (35), in 1939, suggested six-man football as an excellent sport for the smaller school. Caziare (40) told the members of the Thirty-second Convention that a physical training program should include a corrective phase (drills, calisthenics, and dancing), major sports (special emphasis on track), and recreational sports (tennis, horseshoes, swimming, hiking, and bowling). Caligiuri (42) at the next Convention, discussed wrestling. Moore (39) suggested that more emphasis on intermural sports would increase student interest and participation in athletics.

Tap dancing (20), pageants (25), folk dancing (24), rhythm (23), and tumbling (31) were discussed at recent Conventions. The value of these exercises lies in their emphasis upon coordination, cooperation, and balance. The psychological factor of doing the same things that hearing children do is important.

The increased interest in health and physical training at the last few Conventions is associated with increased interest in social and character building. Character building has been emphasized in recent years in all the school athletic programs. Sex-education and other social problems are often handled by the physical training instructors. The physical training program has had influence in the area of

extra-curricular activities; intramural sports, especially, have become exceedingly popular. There is little doubt that physical education will continue to be an important item in the curricula of the schools for the deaf.

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IX. HIGHER EDUCATION

Higher education at the earliest Conventions meant an advanced grade or two for those who had completed the ordinary course. It was observed that the deaf through the medium of the language of signs could master elevated and advanced studies with as little difficulty as hearing children.

VanNostrand (1) suggested, at the First Convention, that classes consisting of lectures and interlocutory examinations be given in philosophy, natural history, mathematics, astronomy, history, and English Literature to the pupils with the best language and application to studies. Turner (2), the next year, said that there was a need for a high school for the deaf; the usual course of five to six years was not long enough to teach language elements, principles, and construction of the English, arithmetic, geography, and history. Some teachers taught subject matter at the expense of language while others spent all of their time on language to the

exclusion of subject matter. He suggested the possibility of state aid for such schools. In the general discussion that followed, Cary suggested, in 1851, that Congress might be persuaded to establish an institution of higher learning for deaf mutes.

By the time another paper on this subject was given at the Convention, the National College for Deaf-Mutes, afterwards Gallaudet College, had already become a reality. Most of the papers given in the Convention on higher education from 1868 on, relate to Gallaudet College or preparation for College. Pratt (3) explained the purpose of the College and how it was related to the institutions. He said that the aims of the College were the aims of colleges in general and that every argument for higher education applied with even greater force to the deaf. He said it was felt that the deaf had minds equal to others, the deficiency being merely one of development. A special college was needed because of the methods of instruction and because they could not hear. As a result of college experience . . . "almost all literary and scientific pursuits would be open to them."*

In the discussion that followed this paper it was generally agreed that the schools should institute high classes as preparation for the college. Bull (4), at the Eighth Convention, gave some suggestions regarding the high classes. He felt that admission should be determined by intellectual ability, language, application, and character. He noted, however, that language is not an absolute test since many students who lost their hearing much later had better language but less natural ability than congenitally deaf mutes. He advocated the study of language, rhetoric, logic, ancient and modern history, algebra and geometry, natural history, and Latin.

Amos Draper, a professor at the College, delivered several papers at early conventions. In stressing the preparation of students for College (5), he said that it was the duty of the institutions to lay the foundations of scholarship and that the College would build upon these foundations. As preparation for College he emphasized that students would

*6:110

need a sound knowledge of English and arithmetic, and that the knowledge of lip reading would be an aid. At the Twelfth Convention (6), he told of College results in terms of what the graduates were doing. At the next Convention (7), he told of some of the developments in the College such as the admission of women and the establishment of a Normal Training Department. He also gave reasons why oral recitations were impractical in the College.

In 1893, Dr. E. M. Gallaudet, President of the College, estimated that only one-half of the students capable of college work had come to the College. Some of the reasons for this were insufficient training and encouragement by the schools, retention by the schools of good pupils as exhibits, and opposition by speech advocates. He said that the charge that pupils would lose their lip reading and speech ability had been proven false by actual experience.

There have been a number of discussions on preparation for college given at the Conventions. Hall (10), in 1901, said there had been too much preparation for entrance examinations and not enough preparation for college. He stressed, in addition to mental ability, such items as finances, morals, and health, as being things that are sometimes overlooked. He suggested that the regular work in the schools be improved to prepare students for College.

Davidson (11), at the same Convention (Sixteenth), agreed that the pupils leave the schools unprepared for life. He said they did not have the ability to reason and that so much was done for them in the schools that they could not get along on their own resources.

At the Nineteenth Convention, A. B. Fay (14), Hotchkiss (15), and Draper (16) discussed preparation for College in terms of Latin, English, and algebra, respectively. Day (22), at a later Convention, stressed the need for better teaching in English composition. In speaking of the common errors made on entrance examinations, he said that the pupils must be encouraged to do more reading.

Charles R. Ely (23) gave to the members of the Twenty-third Convention, excellent suggestions that pupils generally needed in preparation for College. He listed cultivation

of imagination, how to study, assuming responsibility, physical fitness, and moral training as qualities and abilities often lacking in pupils. Dr. Hall (27) told the members of the Twenty-seventh Convention that deaf students seeking admission to college lacked reasoning power. He again emphasized financial, physical, and character preparation as important items often neglected by candidates for College.

Dr. Hall, President of Gallaudet College for many years, kept the Conventions continually informed on the progress and development of the College. In various papers he discussed the expansion of the College (25), the Normal Training Department (13), Gallaudet graduates (18), and results of achievement tests (26). Various professors of the College also brought the College to the attention of the various Conventions. Day (17) showed that a large portion of the College students were congenitally deaf and that they were not being forced out by higher standards as was commonly supposed.

Dr. Charles R. Ely (21) (24) spoke on the additions to the College which gave vocational training without making it a vocational school or lowering its standards. He said that the aim of the College was to prepare students for life. Professor Drake (19) explained to the Twentieth Convention how scientific agriculture was taught at Gallaudet College.

Miss Elizabeth Peet (20), Dean of Women, told the members of the same Convention that pupils need more character training in the schools. She suggested that older pupils be given more freedom and at the same time additional responsibility. She said that the example of the teacher and friendly talks between teachers and pupils, more than any other factor, aid in building character.

Forrester (29) said, in 1937, what Turner (2) had said in 1851, that there is a need for high schools for the deaf. He said that some of the reasons for this need were to produce deaf leaders, to prepare for College, to provide an objective for those with ability, to provide an approach to the normal, and because the times demand them.

The gap between the College and the graduating level of the schools, industrial demand for high school graduates, and other factors will make this subject one of increasing importance to educators of the deaf.

Dr. Doctor (34) explained in 1949 how the academic year at Gallaudet College had now been divided into two semesters in place of three terms. He said also that the courses of study had been divided into six areas in order to make it possible for a student to have a field of concentration.

Edward Scouten (34) in 1949 expressed it as his belief that the students should have acquired better study habits before coming to Gallaudet College and a better background in English and in Algebra.

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X. LANGUAGE

More time was devoted to the discussion of language in the Convention *Proceedings* than to any other topic. Indeed, in every subject discussed, language received consideration since it is the paramount problem in the education of the deaf.

At the very First Convention, in 1850, David E. Bartlett said, "... to teach them language: this is to educate the deaf and dumb, and vice versa—to educate them is to teach them language." *

Concerning the teaching of language to the deaf in the earliest period in the United States, it is well to bear in mind several facts which influenced the methods used. Beginning and Primary classes were composed of children ten to twelve years of age. Instruction was given primarily through the manual method and through writing in most schools for the first fifty years or more. Alvin E. Pope, President of the Twenty-eighth Convention, expressed in his address that in the early days men entered the profession who had been thoroughly trained in the classics. They simply transferred the methods by which they were taught Latin and Greek to the methods of teaching English known as the "Grammar Method." Later, many grammar devices

* 1:179.

were introduced, some of which visualized language for the deaf child and enabled him to gain better understanding and use of it.

There is noted a general agreement on several points among leading teachers of language. As early as 1850, David E. Bartlett emphasized that the only way for the deaf to acquire language is through habit and practice (1). In this idea he was supported by John R. Keep who stressed that it is *use* only which makes a language familiar (7). Dr. Harvey P. Peet emphasized "review, review, review" (17).

Much discussion on signs vs. the manual alphabet prevailed at the early meetings. The majority agreed that the deaf should be encouraged to substitute verbal language (written language) for the language of signs both in and out of school (2). Dr. Keep, in a paper presented as early as 1853, stated that signs should be dispensed within the higher classes (at the end of the fifth grade) and more use should be made of writing and finger spelling in order that deaf children might more rapidly think and talk in good English (7). Dr. Harvey P. Peet spoke of signs as the instruments and tools of labor, a means to an end—that end being the attainment of written and spoken language. He believed signs were important as a means of acquiring language, but should be dispensed with as instruments of communication as far as the pupil is found to be able to use words instead. *

Collins Stone at the Second Convention condemned the use of methodical signs as destructive to language (5). Luzerne Rae held the same idea as Collins Stone,** but Dr. Brown was violently opposed to their idea. He stressed that methodical signs should be adhered to rigidly and never to revert to natural signs.***

Dr. H. P. Peet believed that natural signs must first be used to express the idea, then that the idea should be reduced to a grammatical arrangement by methodical signs

* 3:62, (discussion).

** 3:66.

*** *Ibid.*, 74-75.

corresponding to the English form. (Both Abbe Sicard and Dr. T. H. Gallaudet had been advocates of methodical signs.)*

Dr. Gillett, at the Seventh Convention, opposed the idea of using signs in the order of words. He believed that signs, being the natural language of the deaf, should be used according to the particular genius of that language and that where words need to be given in their right order the use of the manual alphabet was advocated (20).**

Edward Miner Gallaudet believed that in order for language to express exact beautiful divisions of thought it must be spelled into words and not signed.*** Westervelt, first at the Ninth Convention and at several succeeding Conventions, advocated that the manual alphabet be used to the exclusion of signs, and that intercourse be strictly limited to English (27) (41). This subject is discussed under the Chapters Manual Alphabet and Methods.

Another idea which prevailed in early language instruction was that of having pupils commit their lessons to memory. Later papers recommended that memorization be avoided with stress laid on the child developing his own resources (39).

As early as the Second Convention it was stated that books designed for the deaf should be used at first, but as soon as possible the children should be using the common school books of the country (2). Dr. Harvey Prindle Peet, at the Second Convention, presented an outline of work for deaf pupils based on his book, *Elementary Lessons for the Deaf and Dumb*. This work was discussed at three different Conventions by him and by his son, Isaac Lewis Peet (3) (17) (21). He advocated teaching children to repeat words first in the manual alphabet, then in writing (these two almost simultaneously); the pupil should first be allowed to give his ideas in signs, not in written phrases until he could

* There is here an interesting and heated discussion on the use of signs, 3:45-75.

** See also the Chapter on The Language of Signs for information regarding the controversy between the use of methodical signs vs. natural signs.

*** In a discussion following Gillett's paper (20).

comprehend the ideas which the words represented. Dr. Peet's fundamental principles are two: 1. ideas should precede words, and 2. difficulties should be divided as much as possible and introduced one at a time (3).

Isaac Lewis Peet discussed his own method as found in *Language Lessons* at the Eighth Convention, in which he took into consideration the teaching of children as young as five and six years of age (22).

Laurent Clerc, at the Second Convention, outlined his method of teaching language. He employed the system devised by his teacher (Abbe Sicard), the "Theory of Ciphers," using the figures 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 to teach the construction of sentences, for example (4),

1	2	3	4	5
NOMINATIVE	VERB	OBJECTIVE	PREPOSITION	OBJECT OF THE
CASE		CASE		PREPOSITION
I	see	a bird	on	a tree *

This system may be recognized as almost identical with the Barry Five-Slate System which is discussed later in this Chapter.

Clerc placed much emphasis on grammar and syntax. Before giving children work in geography, history and philosophy, he claimed they should be able to rehearse a verb in all its forty-four inflections! He echoed Sicard's analytical method of teaching—getting the pupil to comprehend meanings of words for themselves through a question and answer method between teacher and pupil (4).

The use of grammatical symbols in language teaching as devised by Barnard** was first mentioned at the Third Convention, 1835, by William W. Turner (11) and Isaac Lewis Peet. Peet presented a paper highly advocating the use of these symbols based on Barnard's *Analytical Grammar*, then out of print (12). These early symbols were very complicated and intricate in design. Samuel Porter, at the Sixth Convention, also advocated the use of Barnard's

* 2:67.

** F. A. Barnard, an instructor at the New York Institution of the Deaf and Dumb, later president of Columbia College, N. Y.

System of Symbols (known also as the Hartford Symbols) as improved by Professor Storrs (19). In addition, Samuel Porter discussed grammatical diagrams and their value in language work (19). Job Williams, at the Twelfth Convention, in 1890, explained his system of teaching language through diagrams and symbols (42), virtually the same system as that used by Porter in 1868. The Read and Kellogg system of diagramming was preferred by some teachers of the deaf (54).

Miss Sweet's First Lessons in English were frequently recommended as aids in language teaching (46) (60).

The "sentence method" was presented early in language instruction for the deaf. At the Sixth Convention, in 1868, M. L. Brock in his paper, "A Better Method of Instructing A Class of Beginners," deviated radically from the general view on beginning language work and that The First thing—to be placed before the class should be a full, simple sentence.* He claimed that it had "been proven by experiment in this institution (Illinois) that a class will learn twenty-six sentences more easily than twenty-six letters" ** (18). Six years later, at the Eighth Convention, G. F. Schilling also upheld the sentence method (24).

Members of the Convention, in the discussion following M.L. Brock's paper, held the general opinion that there were advantages in Dr. Peet's method, but that much could be added to it from the newer method introduced by Brock.

Horace S. Gillet at the Seventh Convention, indicated a trend away from the scientific teaching of grammar; he emphasized gaining a practical knowledge first and principles of construction afterwards (20).

The problem of which tense to teach in beginning language work was a much discussed item which disclosed many differences of opinion among teachers. Dr. Harvey P. Peet, in 1851, began his course of instruction in teaching verbs in the form of the present participle first, introduc-

* 6:28.

** *Ibid.*

ing all three simple tenses together, past, present, and future in the first year's work (3) (17) (21).

At the Eleventh Convention, in 1886, in a discussion led by George L. Weed, he stated that the past tense should be taught for the first two years except for the verbs *is, are, have, has, and love*. The present tense was presented in the third year (29). In the same discussion, Noyes objected to using the past tense during the first year in that this causes the style of language to become cramped, stiff, and unnatural. He favored the natural method of teaching language and introducing the present tense first (9). He was supported in his views by Job Williams who favored first teaching the root form of the verb as found in the present tense, then teaching the past and future tenses in the second year (29). There were other teachers advocating this system at that time and in succeeding years. Noble B. McKee presented the idea of teaching the verb first in the infinitive form, this being the root form from which grow all finite forms (50). The trend in later years of not confining language to the past tense in the first year is evidenced in the method used by Edith M. Buell at the Lexington School (108), and others.

Dr. H. P. Peet did not favor the teaching of connected language; he considered it unnecessary in conversation which is composed of brief directions, questions, answers, and brief remarks (3).

The methods of teaching vocabulary to beginners was presented by the majority of writers of language papers presented at the Conventions. The earliest teachers generally kept vocabulary lists which were taught to the pupils (3) (37) (38). George L. Weed, at the Eleventh Convention, required his pupils to keep vocabulary books for new words. He advocated giving a new word when the child expressed the need for it and discarded all synonyms for the first two years. The pupils were not allowed to use any new words in composition which did not appear on their list (29).

The teaching of idioms and everyday expressions was widely discussed by language teachers (30) (45). Miss R. R. Harris suggested her system of teaching these by topics, that is, teaching all stock phrases used in connection with certain subjects such as church, store, and theater (30).

It must be noted that when schools began to admit children at an earlier age, methods in language teaching were changed to some extent; methods were revised to suit the interest level of younger children and progress was slower. The growth of articulation teaching and the advance of the oral method in the schools also had its effect on language teaching. (See the Chapter on Methods of Instruction.)

J. P. Walker, also at the Twelfth Convention, stressed the importance of using the interrogative form continually in teaching in order that the children develop ability in using the question form. He deplored the current books used which dwelt on stupid subjects outside of the everyday life of the child and encouraged teachers to use rational and natural language in teaching (43).

The trend toward a more progressive system of language teaching is indicated by papers which recommended various ways in which to develop the imagination of deaf children (48) (49).

Miss Enfield Joiner, at the Seventh Convention, discussed letters and journals in the first years of oral instruction. She deplored the lack of spontaneity apparent in most journal work and offered suggestions to counteract this. She emphasized beginning the paragraph writing with calendar work to develop a time sequence and unity in language. Miss Joiner stressed giving the spoken form before the written form and use of the Five-Slate System as aids in acquiring straight language (64).

In 1895, Noble B. McKee of the Indiana School, presented to the members of the Fourteenth Convention his system of teaching language which consisted of "sight rules and the Barry-Slate System. He taught an order for the classi-

fication of parts of speech, presenting verbs to the children in the infinitive form first. For example, *

v.	adv.	a.	n.
to walk, walked to jump to crawl	very nicely	a some an the	boy boys John Mary hat dog

Other schools also made use of a similiar system of classification (51) (59).

Sentences then were written in the space reserved on the board for the Five-Slate System (50). This system introduced by Miss Katherine E. Barry in an article in *The Educator* in 1893 (113), has been widely used in schools for the deaf and was highly recommended by many teachers in their papers on language (50) (52) (54) (57) (58) (59) (61) (64) (82) (95) (99). The sixth slate is generally added which contains the adverbial element of time, manner, and condition, and is not numbered since the adverbial element has no fixed position in the sentence. (See example of this System in Appendix, following this Chapter.)

Miss Frances L. Glenn of the Missouri School (59) and Mrs. Anna C. Hurd of the North Carolina School (58) endorsed McKee's system for language work.

J. L. Smith of the Minnesota School, in 1901, explained his method of using Wing's Symbols and the Five-Slate System combined. This method had been in use there for the preceding twenty years (61). Dr. Robert Patterson of the Ohio School at the Seventeenth Convention opposed any system of symbols and the Five-Slate System, preferring rather, the use of "example charts" (62).

A. L. E. Crouter impressed upon the members of the Nineteenth Convention, in 1911, that the fundamental principle in the oral method is that all language, all ideas, should be given to the deaf child through lip reading, this being the nearest approach to the method by which a normal child

* 14:71, also 15:114.

APPENDIX

C. THE BARRY FIVE-SLATE SYSTEM (59) *

Who?	(1)	was is will be	What? Where?	(2)	Whom? What?	(3)	to at for, etc.	Whom? What?	(4)	When? Where?	(5)
James	-----	walk.	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	on the table.	-----
John	-----	put	-----	-----	a ball	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
A ball	-----	is on the table.	-----	-----	an apple	-----	to Willie	-----	-----	yesterday.	-----
Clyde	-----	gave	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----

* 15:115.

acquires language. The deaf child may express his ideas in speech, writing or spelling, all three being English. Language learned by this method is more idiomatic, less strained, and less inclined to deaf-mutism (70). Mabel K. Jones from the Lexington School expressed similar ideas at the Twenty-second Convention (79).

At the same Convention, Dr. N. F. Walker and A. C. Manning agreed that the use of signs should be abolished from the class room where only English should be used. They approved of the use of signs after language had been acquired and for the purpose of religious instruction (72) (74). Dr. Manning suggested the use of the Five-Slate System, much action work, and much repetition for the successful teaching of language (74).

J. W. Jones, in 1920, emphasized a plan of supervised and directed reading most important for all grades. Through association with language by the reading of it the pupils will come to a good understanding and use of language (76).

Professor Howard R. Driggs of New York University addressed the Twenty-fourth Convention, in 1925, on the object, "Vitalizing English." His fundamental platform was 'self-expression'. Five things, he emphasized, were important in language teaching: 1. a gripping subject, close to the child's life, 2. finding the thing you have to say and saying it, 3. choosing the right word, 4. clear enunciation, and 5. correct usage. Professor Driggs gave a demonstration at this Convention with fifteen hearing children, showing the importance of stimulating the child into thinking; he used a question and answer method. Through this system he inspired the children to write compositions in which they expressed their own thoughts in vivid "straight-out-of-their-lives" stories (83) (84).

Throughout the papers and discussions many suggestions are offered on aids in teaching language such as flashcards, games, booklets, different types of charts, and the use of pictures.

Miss Elizabeth Peet, at the Twenty-fourth Convention, suggested a valuable exercise for stimulating imagination and

giving practice in everyday idiom through conversation between pupil and teacher by means of writing (87).

At the Twenty-fifth Convention, in 1927, Dr. Harris Taylor deplored the use of language systems used in the schools which made the child think in terms of grammar. He was opposed to the prevailing method in which, he said,

. . . we take particular pains that he doesn't get any more expression or receive any more than we can help till he gives it the way we want it and receives it the way we think he ought to have it. *

He emphasized that the deaf child should be given language and ideas as fast as he can grasp them. Dr. Taylor presented a way in which the deaf child can be taught to use English, his vernacular, from the day he enters school through a silent reading program designed to develop language comprehension. This method, Dr. Taylor believed, added a new feature superior to any method then in existence since it prevented the stagnation of months and months that resulted in oral schools where signs were not used; it presented an easier form to grasp than the Rochester Method ** and it was pronouncedly superior to any system where signs were used (92).

Gladys Davis from the Virginia School at the Twenty-ninth Convention, also presented her ideas concerning a silent reading program established through an activity program. She gave an outline showing how her method correlated rhythm, speech, and speech reading (119). Mrs. Rachel Dawes Davies, from Central Institute, at the Thirty-second Convention, 1941, stressed "A Reading Approach to Language" (128). Miss Joiner (108) also recommended a directed reading program.

At the Twenty-fifth Convention, in 1927, Edith Fitzgerald gave a demonstration on straight language and the Fitzgerald Key suitable for use in all grades (96) (122). Six years later she presented a paper at the Twenty-eighth Convention explaining the use of the Key which is designed to present language principles to the deaf child in the

* 25:109.

** The Rochester Method, making use of speech and finger spelling, is discussed in the Chapters on Manual Alphabet and Methods of Instruction.

order of his needs; he begins to *sense*, in a nonlanguage way, the underlying principles of language (115). Marie S. Kennard discussed this method again at the Thirty-second Convention (130).

Josephine F. Quinn presented a demonstration before the Twenty-sixth Convention on her teaching of sequence action, verbs, and tenses. She highly recommended the use of Wing's Symbols mentioned earlier in this Chapter (100). At the Twenty-eighth Convention, Miss Quinn gave a discussion on Wing's Symbols indicating their convenience for use in all classes (115). Sarah E. Lewis at the Twenty-ninth Convention, in 1935, pointed out their advantages in that the symbols take up no more room than the sentence itself and sentences can be symbolized as they stand in the paragraph (120). This system developed by George Wing, 1880-1885, was recommended by a number of other language teachers (103) (106).

The importance of developing the power of reasoning in the deaf child was emphasized during this period by Mrs. Ota Blankenship (101), A. P. Buchanan (106), Professor Irving S. Fusfeld (107), and many others.

Miss Enfield Joiner, at the Twenty-seventh Convention, in 1931, as well as many other teachers, advocated the use of Croker, Jones and Pratt *Language Stories and Drills*, supplemented with original exercises by the teacher. She presented a course of study for language work in the advanced grades stressing action work, question and answer work, and conventional drills. She offered a system of original language work including condensing articles from newspapers, encyclopedias, and other sources (109).

Edith M. Buell of the Lexington Avenue School and Mrs. Rachel Dawes Davies of Central Institute, in teaching deaf children, applied psychological methods used in the public schools for teaching hearing children (113). Miss Buell believed in using a more natural method in teaching language and in providing interesting experiences for the children as a basis for language work (108). Many members agreed with her very refreshing approach to the language problem.

Miss Quinn, who gave prominence to drill work in her system, opposed Miss Buell on that score.

Mildred A. Groht, of the Lexington Avenue School, further explained their system of language teaching at the Twenty-eighth and Twenty-ninth Conventions. She enlarged on Miss Buell's ideas presented at the Twenty-seventh Convention. She urged a moratorium on elliptical sentences and referred to formal drills and set rules as "outworn methods" and "mistaken approaches." She emphasized also more directed play in the class room and making more use of situations for teaching desired principles in a natural way (117) (121).

Mention should be made also of the Belgian Method of teaching language to preschool deaf children used at the Le Couteulx St. Mary's School at Buffalo, New York. This was discussed by Sister M. Maura at the Twenty-ninth Convention (118). This method is taken up in more detail in the Chapter on Preschool.

At the Thirty-first Convention, Mrs. Marietta Rector Vinson discussed the "Method and Logical System of Language Teaching" employing the use of a column system (seven columns) and symbols (no relation to Wing's Symbols) (127).

It would be impossible to present in detail all of the many systems of language teaching employed with their various differences on minor points as they occur in the *Proceedings* over a hundred-year period. If more details appear here concerning the earliest period, it is because such information is less accessible to the reader at the present time than information on the later systems of language teaching. Only principal methods and general trends could, of course, of necessity, be presented in this Chapter.

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XI. LEGAL STATUS

There are relatively few special laws affecting the deaf in England and the United States. In most respects the deaf have been accorded the rights and privileges, as well as the responsibilities that are granted to any other citizens. For this reason the topic of legal status has not been discussed to any great extent in the conventions.

The most extensive paper on this subject was a report by Dr. H. Peet (1), at the Fourth Convention. This report considered the legal rights of the deaf from earliest times up to 1856. In this report, Dr. Peet states that, although in feudal times the deaf were deprived of many rights, such as property and inheritance rights, when the feudal code passed away and education was given to the deaf they were generally accorded full privileges of the law.

In this country the deaf were required to prove their competency to the satisfaction of the courts when making wills and contracts or managing estates. It was, however, the practice of the common courts to appoint guardians for any person shown to be incapable of managing his own estate, whether deaf or not. Only Georgia had a law specifically mentioning the deaf in this respect.

The marriage contract between deaf persons was valid in England as early as the seventeenth century. Other European countries were less liberal; Prussia, especially,

forbade marriages between two deaf persons. Dr. Peet said that there was no law against marriage by the deaf in this country and that these marriages were valid from state to state.

Regarding oaths he suggested that the deaf have an interpreter in order to be sure that they fully understand their legal obligations.

"... the Deaf Mute has the same rights, and is subject to the same accountability as his brother who hears and speaks."* Dr. Peet felt that deaf criminals had escaped punishment by feigning ignorance and that they could be trapped when accused of a more serious crime which would surprise them into revealing their real understanding of the law. That deaf mutes were not held in strict accountability for their crimes is revealed in Dr. Peet's failure to find a single record under American or English law of a deaf person receiving capital punishment. Dr. Peet makes it clear, however, that ignorance or action under an erroneous impression by the deaf should be urged in extenuation or pardoning power (1).

Later laws affecting the deaf as a class were chiefly educational. Some states required that parents of deaf children sign certificates of poverty or declare that they were paupers in order to have their children educated free by the state. These were repealed when free public schools became more common.

The need for compulsory education laws for deaf children was recognized by the early educators of the deaf. J. L. Noyes (2) presented a picture of the attendance situation of the schools to the Seventh Convention, showing that only one-half to three-fourths of the known deaf were in schools at that time. Since there was already a movement under way to provide laws of this sort for the hearing, he emphasized the particular need of these laws for deaf children.

As the schools for the deaf were gradually included into the state educational systems the need for special legislation disappeared. No special legal problems arose until the

* 4:120

Twenty-third Convention when the discrimination against the deaf in regard to driving automobiles was discussed by Mr. Beadell (3). He showed that the deaf were capable drivers and that they were being discriminated against as a group in a few states. An appeal was made to the Convention to support the deaf in their fight for the right to drive automobiles. The discriminatory legislation was passed in only a few of the Eastern states. These were the results of accidents in which deaf persons were involved but not at fault.

Some legislation affecting the deaf in the vocational field, especially regarding vocational rehabilitation, have been discussed at various Conventions. These are in almost all cases favorable to the deaf and are discussed briefly in the Chapter on Vocational Education.

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XII. LIBRARIES

John Woods (2), as early as the Tenth Convention, said that a school will never become a leading school unless it has a library that is adapted to the needs of the teachers and officers as well as to the pupils of the school, thus illustrating the importance of the library in the early schools. Books of all sorts should be available, especially juvenile works which are the most difficult to select. All books should be within reach and never kept under lock and key. The library facilities should provide ample light and furniture for good comfortable reading. The librarian should work with the teachers in finding reference materials and getting the pupils interested in reading good books. The teachers should discuss and use library books wherever possible to stimulate reading interest.

Students were encouraged to find books for themselves and to become familiar with the library and books, but because of an inadequate cataloging system the early librar-

ians spent much of their time in finding books for the pupils.

The early libraries often contained show cases of museum items which became the depository for the visual aids of that time. The specimens in these cases were labeled in simple terms and used by the teachers when the occasion arose (3) (4).

In 1878 Dr. MacIntire said, in a discussion,

Every institution for the deaf and dumb in the country should be well supplied with a well-selected library, . . . and pains should be taken to interest the pupils in reading them, not merely to amuse, nor only for general information, but to form in them a taste and habit of reading, so that when they leave school, they may have within themselves a means of enjoyment and self-improvement.*

Tuck (4), at the Fifteenth Convention, said that the use made of library facilities was more important than the number of books it contained. The library should be used by everyone and the pupils should be encouraged to make their own selection of books with the guidance of the librarian or teacher.

The library should have ample facilities for the teachers to improve professionally and culturally (2). At the Eighteenth Convention (5) there was division of opinion as to whether vocational books should be kept in the regular library, a special vocational library or in the classrooms of the vocational teachers.

The ideas presented at these early Conventions were very much like those presented at the Thirty-third Convention where Miss Kennedy (7), for example, said that reading could save the deaf person from boredom. Miss Heintz (6) told of the difficulty in selecting books for the deaf, especially juvenile books, which is an old problem. A more modern idea of this Convention was having a one hour library period per week for each class (8). However, an early paper on library work reported that teachers would have their classes come to the library on many occasions for book selection and reading. Pupils were also encouraged to gather in the library every Saturday afternoon and evening for reading (2).

* 9:87.

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XIII. MANUAL ALPHABET

Information concerning the manual alphabet appears in many papers on a variety of subjects throughout the *Proceedings*, especially in the earlier ones. References will be made in this Chapter to some of the more important papers concerning the use of the manual alphabet which are referred to in the Chapters on Language, Deaf-Blind, and Methods of Instruction. The papers discussed in this Chapter are those which deal exclusively with the types of the manual alphabet and its use.

John R. Burnet, at the First Convention, in 1850, rendered an explanation of a "syllabic" manual alphabet which he believed to be less awkward than the other manual alphabet made from imitating the forms of the letters. He claimed it easier to remember since it consisted of only thirty movements. The consonants were executed by touching the first and last joints of the fingers with the thumb; the vowels were indicated by holding up certain fingers. All of the consonants were made with one hand except the six anomalous consonants. Other syllables were made with the left hand fingers pointing out certain joints on the right hand (1).

Since Mr. Burnet could not attend the Third Convention, he wrote a letter to the Rev. Mr. Stone who presented the contents of his letter concerning the syllabic alphabet to the Convention, in 1853. He inquired about the poss-

ibilities of devising a syllabic alphabet which might enable the intimate friends of a deaf person to convey to him a public discourse, syllable for syllable (2).

Mr. Burnet also suggested that it would be desirable to have a "telegraphic" alphabet by which communication might be had with a deaf mute at some distance, e. g. from the opposite sides of a river. He wrote of an "Alphabet Gymnastique" of thirty years previous used by the Parisian Institution in which letters were represented by positions of the arms and legs instead of the hands. This alphabet was reputed legible at ten to twenty times the distance of the other. The positions imitated the capital Roman letters (2).

Mr. Burnet also mentioned seeing a work containing a system of "brachial telegraphing" in which the positions of the arms represented letters, numbers, and the most usual questions, answers, and signals between ships at sea. Such a system, he inferred, would be invaluable to the deaf in emergencies. He believed the Parisian style to be more applicable than the latter (2).

At the Fourth Convention, in 1856, the report from the Committee on the syllabic alphabet (consisting of Messrs. Peet, Bartlett, Cary, and Burnet) was presented by Dr. Isaac Lewis Peet. He informed the members that an experiment with the syllabic alphabet had been made at the New York Institution but that it had been unsuccessful. The pupils preferred the old alphabet, since the syllabic alphabet was found difficult to acquire and more difficult to read. The deaf as a group, he maintained, knew nothing of dividing words into syllables which made the new alphabet virtually useless (3).

Dr. Peet mentioned another type of manual alphabet in which letters were written on the joints of the fingers and different parts of the hand, to be indicated by pointing to them. He told also of a French amateur who proposed the plan of writing letters on a glove so that any person unacquainted with the manual alphabet could communicate with the deaf. Dr. Peet contended that these methods would have no advantage over writing or a system of using an

alphabet printed on a card whereby the letters could be pointed out to spell words (3).

Dr. Edward Miner Gallaudet, at the Sixth Convention, in 1868, warned against the profuse use of the language of signs in class room instruction. Teachers and officers, he emphasized, should restrain pupils from using the language of signs after they could employ the finger alphabet in their communications (4).

At the Eighth Convention, in 1874, Professor Samuel Porter proclaimed the manual alphabet to be the best system of communication for the deaf among themselves, since it is four times more rapid than writing and is caught living and fresh as it comes forth, not gathered up from dead symbols. He presented rules which he called the "elocution" of the manual alphabet. These he considered necessary in order to perfect this medium. The following are abbreviations of his rules: 1. every letter should be distinctly formed, 2. a steady position of the hand is important, 3. the separation between words should be marked with a barely perceptible pause, 4. accent and emphasis: more time, greater distinctness, and stress should be given to the body of a word and the less essential parts should be slurred; the same should be done with words which are the most important clues to the whole sentence, 5. the upward and downward motion of the hand has a corresponding significance to the upward and downward inflection in speech; this makes the alphabet capable of great expressiveness, and 6. the facility of spelling with either hand should be acquired (5).

Prof. Porter stressed that the manual alphabet should take precedence over every other means of communication in the exercise of the school room. He suggested that dictation should be given in spelling and repeated by the pupils in the language of signs. He emphasized that the alphabet is an aid in having the child come to know correct English

in proper order from the start and an aid in learning language (5).*

A unique idea was presented by James Denison at the Eleventh Convention, in 1886, concerning "The Manual Alphabet as a Part of the Public School Course." He argued that many times a knowledge of the manual alphabet would be of practical value for hearing people, e.g., when absolute silence must be maintained—in the sick-room, for invalids, and dying persons. He stressed its value in orthography since it would require exactness in spelling. He was of the opinion that the manual alphabet should be taught in the public schools since its general use would throw open the doors of communication between the deaf and the hearing (6).

Following the rendition of this paper, Dr. Isaac Lewis Peet presented a resolution that the Executive Committee of the Convention publish this paper in the ANNALS and that they memorialize the Department of Public Education at Washington on the subject and that each principal of an institution in the United States memorialize the Department of Public Instruction in his state to recommend that the manual alphabet be taught in the public schools.

At the Twelfth Convention, Edmund Lyon presented a phonetic alphabet which he had devised involving Dr. Bell's scheme of consonants, vowels, glides, and diphthongs. In this ingenious system the positions of the hands were descriptive of the vocal organs and their functions (8). Mr. Westervelt mentioned that he had used this system with success in the *advanced classes*. Dr. Bell also gave his approval of this device, in spite of the fact that he was a "pure oralist."

The manual alphabet was used to a great extent in the education of the deaf-blind by spelling into the hand.** Additional papers concerning the use of the manual alphabet as a means of instruction may be found in the Biblio-

* For other papers which concern the use of the manual alphabet as an aid in learning language, see the Bibliography on Language, Chapter X, papers (3) (4) (20) (30) (46) (57) (63) (72)

** See the Bibliography on Deaf-Blind, Chapter VI, papers (1) (2) (3) (5) (6)

graphy on Methods of Instruction, Chapter XVI, papers (8) (11) (12) (30) (31) and all of the papers listed under the Rochester Method in this Chapter.

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XIV. MATHEMATICS

There have been a great many methods and plans for teaching mathematics to the deaf presented at the Conventions at various times. The methods are almost as varied as the number of papers on the subject.

One of the earliest methods used was presented by Walker (2) at the Tenth Convention. The Grube method of teaching numbers, which he advocated, would introduce and teach the addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division of numbers from one to ten at approximately the same time. He also emphasized drill on numbers and arithmetic phrases.

At the next Convention, Booth (3), in a discussion, demonstrated his system of teaching numbers. He used various units up to ten and then units of ten up to one hundred, thus building up the idea of number. He taught addition and subtraction together, one as the compliment of the other. He would present a simple problem and allow the pupils to solve it after he had illustrated the conditions of

the problem. Multiplication he taught as repeated additions of the same number, while division was a series of subtractions.

Some teachers emphasized the need for special language study in learning arithmetic, especially in the primary grades. (4), (5), (11), (20). In this connection, some teachers emphasized the use of key words in the solution of problems, while others felt that the pupils should depend wholly upon verbs (2) (4) (5).

Many of the speakers advocated the use of objects in learning the value of numbers. Eddy (8), Johnson (16), and others suggested that a great variety of different objects be used in this work. They said that the actual units of measurement should be brought into the classroom when teaching denominate numbers.

McClure (6), at the Twelfth Convention stressed mental drill in learning fundamentals. He had his pupils construct addition and subtraction tables from their discoveries in using various objects. The fundamental processes had to be learned before the pupils could go on. To this end he drilled unsparingly in an attempt to get speed, accuracy and correct expression. Sensenig (19), a recognized authority on arithmetic, emphasized mental arithmetic at the Twenty-third Convention over thirty years later. He said that pupils should thoroughly master the forty-five combinations. He taught his pupils to work these combinations mentally under his watchful eye. He did not see the need for many objects, and criticized Grube and others for wasting time in working with objects and numbers within a narrow limit. He said, "The *factors used* in reasoning are ideas, not objects."* He used charts wherever possible, the advantages being that they encouraged mental drill, oral work, and automatic methods of learning combinations.

Quigley (22), in 1935, also recognized the importance of the fundamental processes. He told the members of the Twenty-ninth Convention that arithmetic did not get

* 23:81

enough emphasis. He said that arithmetic should be taught to the deaf as it is to the hearing.

There is only one way to handle effectively the multiplication tables and that is to memorize them. Because a child is deaf does not excuse him from the labor of learning all his tables, nor does it make it more excusable for the teacher to do all his work for him.*

Cook (9), told the Twelfth Convention his system of teaching fractions. Using first only objects that could be cut in half, he acted out problems using these halves. The terms numerator and denominator were not used until thirds were introduced. The pupils were expected to reason and were not taught the mechanical method until other fractions were introduced. Sensenig, in 1920, said that the denominator is simply the name of a part of a thing and can be made clear by writing it. For example, $2/3 \times 4 = 8/3$, can be written 4×2 thirds $= 8$ thirds. He advocated teaching only what was practical. He omitted large fractions and the teaching of obsolete tables of measurement.

Problem solving, which involves language, is particularly difficult for the deaf. Dudley (12), at the Fourteenth Convention, said there were only two things to know in problem solving, i.e., what to do and how to do it. He suggested that small numbers be used to illustrate problems. Mrs. Driscoll (17), addressing the Twenty-first Convention, in 1917, said that in problem work teachers should do the following: avoid crutch words, focus upon conditions not operations, and make problems real. Sensenig, at the Twenty-second Convention (18), said that problems should appeal to the mind in a practical way. Later, at the Twenty-seventh Convention (21), he said that teachers should use objects, drawings and illustrations to lead the pupils to an understanding of the problem.

The more recent trend in the Conventions is toward practical mathematics. Mudgett (23) presented a practical outline for ninth grade mathematics to the members of the Thirty-second Convention. This course was based upon problems of living and in it he discussed budgets, food, shelter,

* 29:221

utilities, clothing, taxes, savings, and other practical everyday problems.

Burnes (24), at the same Convention, emphasized the need for better courses of study in mathematics. He suggested the use of newer, better textbooks and the contract system, whereby the pupils advance at their own speed. The tests given by Gallaudet College for admission make the need for a greater emphasis on mathematical textbooks and courses of study in this field. He concluded that there is no excuse for using outdated and obsolete textbooks when there are so many good modern textbook series on the market.

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XV. MEDICAL

Most of the papers on the medical aspect delivered at the Conventions concerned themselves with the ear or causes of deafness. The very earliest papers, however, were concerned with the deaf person's susceptibility to other ills.

Morris (1), in answer to an English writer, who stated that the deaf were more subject to insanity than the blind, delivered a paper at the First Convention, giving reasons why the blind, rather than the deaf, were more subject to insanity. Porter (2), at the Second Convention, emphasized the need for a healthy school environment for the deaf because many of the pupils had diseases resulting from poor environment.

Causes of deafness and possible cures have been discussed throughout the history of the Convention. Morris (3), in 1853, said that the medical profession showed little interest in the deaf but that they could perhaps do much by studying the diseases which caused deafness. He mentioned experimental work being done in Paris and Berlin which showed some promise of success. Adams (7), told the members of the Thirteenth Convention that much deafness could be prevented by study, prevention, and cure of throat and nose diseases, and that early treatment of all colds and ear-aches would minimize possible deafness.

Hays (8), in 1917, told the Twenty-first Convention, that parents and doctors were often to blame for a child's deafness. He said that most doctors know very little about ears and how to protect them. Parents should be educated to be seriously concerned at the slightest symptom indicating something wrong with their child's ears. Dr. Love (9), in 1929, said that deafness due to disease is decreasing.

Some speakers have shown concern about hereditary deafness. Turner (4), as early as 1868, stressed the dangers of intermarriage between congenital deaf-mutes. He showed that deafness runs in families and that as many as seven deaf children have been born to hearing parents. Love (9) said that hereditary deafness will not disappear through

ordinary education. He would ban marriages between cousins and those who have deafness on each side of the family.

Deafness is more than a physical handicap according to Dr. Reiter (10). He told the Twenty-eighth Convention that deafness involves mental defect. He said that there is no compensation of one sense for the lack of another; one sense is merely better trained. ". . . in dealing with a deaf child we are dealing with an individual that is unique and not with an individual bereft simply of his hearing."*

The relation of aphasia to deafness was brought up at the Eleventh Convention by Weston Jenkins (6). He said that most schools receive pupils who are not deaf and that these pupils would do better in an institution for the feeble-minded.

* 28:65

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XVI. METHODS OF INSTRUCTION

I. GENERAL

Dr. Thomas Hopkins Gallaudet, influenced by the French System as used by the Abbe de L'Epee, adopted the manual or silent method for the American School, and this method prevailed in all of the schools until 1867-68, when articulation was added to the curriculum.

The method of instruction of the deaf has always been a subject of great controversy. Some educators believed firmly that the language of signs was a very valuable aid in the teaching of English to the deaf while others contended that it was detrimental to their learning good English.

At the Third Convention, in 1853, a very interesting debate took place concerning this controversy between J. Van Nostrand, a teacher in the New York Institution and the Rev. John R. Keep, a teacher in the Ohio School, and later in the Hartford School. The former believed that signs should be used in the teaching of English; the latter was in favor of restricting the use of the language of signs and eliminating it entirely beyond the fifth grade. Dr. Harvey Prindle Peet supported Mr. Van Nostrand; Dr. James S. Brown agreed with the Rev. John R. Keep. Other noted members of the Convention took part in the debate. Educators who believed in using the language of signs for instruction disagreed among themselves as to the type of signs which should be used.* Other papers were presented by Mr. Turner, Mr. Rae, Dr. I. L. Peet, and the Rev. Collins Stone.

Horace Mann, Secretary of the Massachusetts Board of Education and Dr. S. G. Howe, Superintendent of the Perkins Institute for the Blind, made a tour of Europe in 1843. They inspected schools in Germany and in England in which children were taught speech and speechreading. Mr. Mann published a report later on calling attention to the advantage of this method over any method at that time used in the schools in the United States.** An effort was made to establish an oral school in Boston, but failed largely because the American School at Hartford added to its curriculum the teaching of articulation and lipreading.

Other reports of European schools were soon published by men in the profession who made reports less favorable

* Information is given on this in Chapters X on Language and XXVI on the Language of Signs. See also the Bibliographies to these Chapters for the source of papers and discussions on the language of signs.

** For Dr. E. M. Gallaudet's opinion of the report, see Chapter XXIX on Speech.

than that of Mr. Mann. The Rev. George E. Day and Dr. H. P. Peet informed members of the Convention that the speech taught to the German children was of little value and their method was especially weak for imparting moral and religious instruction to the deaf.*

The Clarke School was founded in 1867 at Northampton, Massachusetts, with Harriet B. Rogers in charge. The policy of this school (oral) was set forth in these words:

This institution is especially adapted for the education of the semi-deaf and semimute pupils, but others may be admitted.**

In 1864, a private oral school was founded in New York City, which was reorganized three years later as the Institution for the Improved Instruction of Deaf-Mutes, later to be known as the Lexington School for the Deaf.

Dr. Edward Miner Gallaudet, President of the Columbia Institution for the Deaf, made an examination of the methods employed in European schools in 1867-68.*** As a result resolutions were offered at the Sixth Convention, in 1868, by Dr. Gallaudet and the Rev. Collins Stone,**** to the effect that articulation and lipreading should be taught to those pupils who could profit by them, but that only in rare cases is it worth while to attempt to teach congenital mutes articulation.*****

As a result of these resolutions most of the schools added articulation to their curriculums, but unfortunately, the only available teachers were untrained and ill-prepared for the task, which resulted in unsatisfactory speech work. This fault coupled with the fact that orally taught children in institutions picked up the language of signs and finger spelling from the manually taught pupils, caused the educators of the deaf to fall into two groups. The one group

* See Chapter XXIX on Speech for the opinions of E. A. Day, H. P. Peet, L. Weld, Leon Vaisse and Charles E. Perry.

** 21:187

*** See Chapter XXIX on Speech and for Dr. Gallaudet's opinions concerning the teaching of articulation.

**** Dr. Edward Miner Gallaudet presented the second and fourth resolutions; the Rev. Collins Stone presented the first and third (7).

***** See Chapter 1 on the History of the Convention for these resolutions.

was known as oralist, headed by Dr. Caroline Yale, Principal of the Clarke School and Dr. Alexander Graham Bell; the other group were advocates of the combined system, headed by Dr. Edward Miner Gallaudet, President of Gallaudet College. There was not so much disagreement among these factions as to the wisdom of teaching speech and lipreading to the deaf. The controversy lay in what proportion of the deaf could be benefited by oral instruction and under what conditions it should be taught. The oralists placed great emphasis on speech environment and oral atmosphere under which conditions they claimed all deaf pupils could successfully be taught speech. Advocates of the combined system disagreed violently with the idea and maintained that for many deaf children the language of signs and finger spelling were of the greatest aid in mental development.

Better speech and lipreading came out of this controversy in both oral and combined schools.*

Dr. J. C. Gordon, in the opening address of the oral section, at the Fourteenth Convention, in 1895, presented a few events of a historical nature which occurred at previous conventions in connection with this work. Many of these have already been mentioned in this and other Chapters, but there are a few miscellaneous items of interest. Present at the Convention was Mrs. Alice Noyes Smith, daughter of Dr. J. L. Noyes, Superintendent of the Minnesota School. Her mother, Miss Wadsworth, of Hartford, according to Dr. Gordon, was the first regularly employed teacher of articulation in an established American Institution.** Dr. Gordon made mention of many great men and women of Europe and America who had contributed to the oral method or applied its art in their teaching.

At the Nineteenth Convention, in 1911, John W. Blatter suggested eight as the ideal number of pupils in an oral class and ten to twelve in a manual class. At that time classes were considerably larger than this because there

* Much of the preceding section of this Chapter is based on information found in the paper by J. W. Jones (7).

** 14:101

were an increasing number of pupils and not a sufficient increase in funds (3).

Concerning oral and manual pupils, Rudolf Pintner, at the Twenty-second Convention, in 1917, stated that the oral method does not give a better comprehension of written language, history, geography, or arithmetic. On the other hand, according to his findings, the manual method is not stimulating enough to bright pupils, but dull pupils seem to do better with this method (5).

The larger part of this general discussion on methods of instruction has dealt with a brief history of the methods used in the education of the deaf in the United States in order to give a background for the types of methods which will be discussed in the following four sections.

Many of the papers appearing in the Bibliography of this Chapter are so interrelated that it is impossible to classify them exactly under the several headings. Some of them appear to concern one method more than another but in many cases it was very difficult to make a decision as to their correct location.

A. AURICULAR METHOD

The auricular method seeks to develop to the greatest extent the hearing of semi-deaf pupils, with or without the aid of artificial appliances (7). This is a comparatively recent method which, it appears, has improved as science has found new devices for enabling the partially deaf, and sometimes the almost totally deaf, to hear sound in varying degrees to a greater extent. The education of pupils under this method is carried on chiefly through the use of speech and hearing, together with writing (7). This method is discussed under Chapter IV on Auricular Training.

B. COMBINED SYSTEM

The combined system, according to the definition as found in the *American Annals of the Deaf*, is a system in which

Speech and speech-reading are regarded as very important, but mental development and the acquisition of language are regarded as still more important. (7)

Advocates of the combined system are of the opinion that in some cases the preceding important objectives mentioned can best be promoted by the manual or manual alphabet method. Speech and speechreading are given to pupils insofar as they appear to benefit by them. In "some of the combined-system schools the oral or the auricular method is strictly followed." (7)

At the Tenth Convention, in 1882, Dr. G. O. Fay presented a case for the language of pantomime which he believed to be a powerful ally in any system of instruction whether oral or manual. He urged that teachers be open-minded to all the existing philosophies and systems of education. He believed, as did many of his associates, that the best system of education for the deaf is a comprehensive system (8).

Dr. A. L. E. Crouter, at the Eleventh Convention, in 1886, rendered a discourse on "The True Combined System of Instruction." He laid out the four distinct types of the combined system, i.e., 1. the free use of signs and articulation with the same pupils by the same instructors, 2. the general instruction of all pupils by the manual method with special training for a part of them in articulation and lip-reading as an accomplishment, 3. the instruction of some in the manual method and some in the oral method in the same institution, and 4. instruction by the manual method and the oral method in separate schools under the same management.

Dr. Crouter labelled the first two systems as antagonistic since in such a mixed method it is impossible to get any combination between the two elements. He suggested as a remedy the separate classes so that the semi-mutes and rare congenitally deaf pupils who would profit by the oral method could do so. The last system mentioned, he affirmed the true combined-system, the wisest and most practical for each individual (10).

Dr. Isaac Lewis Peet disagreed with Dr. Crouter in separating the systems. In his interpretation of the combined system he included the use of all types of teaching, i.e., the language of signs, the manual alphabet, speech, lip-

reading, and aural development—not for selected pupils, but for each and every pupil. He presented a brief outline of the customary practice in using the combined system at the New York Institution which appears as follows: 1. the teacher dictated orally to the pupils, 2. the pupils gave the sentences in the manual alphabet, 3. they wrote the sentences in their phonetic spelling, 4. then in their orthographic spelling, and, finally, 5. the pupils read the sentences orally. The sentences were frequently rendered in the language of signs, also, in order that the teacher might be sure they were completely understood (9) (11).

Dr. Gilbert O. Fay complained that the oral schools had crowded out some subjects which were taught in “sign schools” and that English composition and the reading of newspapers was being neglected in the oral schools. He expressed his opinion that “sign schools” must add articulation to the daily round and that “articulation schools” should add the use of pantomime and the manual alphabet (12). Dr. Crouter, in a discussion following this paper, said that all pupils should be placed under oral instruction on entering school; in cases of failure, “sign instruction” should be given (12).

At the Thirteenth Convention, in 1893, Dr. Edward Miner Gallaudet, in his paper, “The Proper Adjustment of Methods in the Education of the Deaf,” presented an idea similar to that of Dr. Crouter in that all children should be given speech at first and then divided into three classes, i. e., 1. those who can speak and can be taught through speech, 2. those using the manual method with speech drill and training, and 3. those taught by the manual method alone (13).

William G. Jenkins, at the same Convention, pointed out that both the oral method and the combined system have approximately the same success in teaching English—both produce mixed English. He stressed the fact that articulation teaching in the combined school does not differ in kind from the oral school; the difference is one of degree (14).

Warren Robinson, at the Fifteenth Convention, in 1898, advised the entire separation of manual and oral pupils. He

believed this to be the only answer to favorable conditions for oral work. Each department, ideally, can in this way perform its part and assist where the other fails (16).

At the Twenty-third Convention, in 1923, Brother Gaudet also expressed his approval of a separation of the two systems of instruction as it was in effect at the school for the deaf in Montreal (21).

D. C. Dudley, also at the Fifteenth Convention, agreed in many respects with earlier advocates of the combined system, in that the partially deaf who can acquire speech through the ear should use spoken language. Only these are adapted to pure oral teaching. For the congenitally deaf, however, the language of signs enables them to indulge in conversation to a far greater extent at an earlier age than they could by the oral method. He believed that oral pupils should be allowed the free use of signs outside of the classroom and that all chapel exercises should be conducted in the language of signs (17).

A number of papers presented were concerned with the problems in teaching speech in the combined-system schools (14) (15) (19) (20). At the Twentieth Convention, in 1914, it was pointed out that a large percentage of schools did not give enough teaching in speech and many schools still ignored the task of giving any (18). A better attitude on the part of teachers and superintendents toward speech teaching was recommended by Frank M. Driggs (19). There was an apparent need for more funds, and the need for a better grading system in order to have the teaching of articulation become a successful part in the combined-system schools (19) (20).

1. ROCHESTER METHOD

At the Ninth Convention, in 1878, Z. F. Westervelt, Superintendent of the Western New York Institution at Rochester, declaimed the use of the language of signs for instructing the deaf. All communication, he believed, must be carried on by the means of proper English words, spelled out by means of the manual alphabet, spoken, or written. He declared that there is no psychological necessity to the

deaf for the language of pantomime, since there is no malformation of the brain that compels a deaf person to carry on mental processes in pantomimic images. Mr. Westervelt disagreed with advocates of the language of *natural* signs; he insisted that such signs are *not* "natural." While it is true that gestures and ejaculations are common to all men, these are not language. The methodical language of signs developed by de l'Epee and Sicard was not the outgrowth of the deaf mind, but the result of the accumulated labor of three generations of learned men (22).

Mr. Westervelt explained that deaf children enter school having their own sign dialect, a natural kind of sign making, but this is entirely abandoned for the artificial and conventional signs of the institution. He believed that if teachers are to give the deaf child new words for his ideas, they should give him the spelled and written words that are the conventional signs of the English speaking people (22).

Mr. Westervelt told the members of the Convention that the English language was meant to be spoken; voice modulations, pauses, rapidity and slowness, and facial expressions are a part of our language. Therefore, elocution should be cultivated in spelling; the soul must speak as well as the fingers (22).

A number of members took exception to Mr. Westervelt's theme, i.e., the disuse of the language of signs, and insisted that it has its place in the instruction of the deaf.

Again, at the Eleventh Convention, in 1886, Z. F. Westervelt, discussed his method of manual spelling, stressing that this, along with speaking and writing makes the colloquial and idiomatic use of English a habit. He pointed out that words can be spelled at the rate of eighty to one hundred words a minute, a rate rapid enough for ordinary intercourse (23).

At the Sixteenth Convention, in 1901, Mr. Westervelt set forth the idea that the "Rochester Method" was very closely allied to the oral method; it is an oral method with a manual spelling basis. He explained the method he used in instructing his teachers in this system (24). In a discussion following this paper, Dr. E. M. Gallaudet disagreed with

Mr. Westervelt in this one respect, that he was not in favor of abolishing the language of signs from the lecture hall and the chapel.

At the Twenty-second Convention, 1920, T. C. Forrester, the succeeding Superintendent of the Rochester School, stated as the aim of the Rochester Method the best speech and speechreading possible, combined with the highest literary ability that it is possible to develop. The entire communication used at the school is speech and finger spelling in and outside of the class rooms (25).

C. L. McLaughlin, a product of the Rochester School, reported that the School meets the high school requirements, because English is the basis of progress. He believed that under this method the congenitally deaf child can compete fairly with the hard of hearing and the semi-mute and that every child is reached and vitalized through it (26).

It is highly significant that Dr. Percival Hall, President of the Columbia Institution for the Deaf, at the Twenty-third Convention, in 1923, remarked in an address, that

... the only large public school for the deaf in the country offering a high school standard of graduation is the western New York institution at Rochester, where the English method is used, manual spelling is largely employed and students are regularly given high-school work equivalent to the requirements of the board of regents for public high-school pupils.* (28)

Many members presented papers in which they expressed the value of the manual alphabet over the language of signs for purposes of instruction.** The advantages of the Rochester Method are apparent, yet as far as the *Proceedings* show, the Rochester School is the only one in which this particular method is strictly adhered to.

C. MANUAL METHOD

The manual method, according to the definition found in the *AMERICAN ANNALS OF THE DEAF*, is a system in which

Signs, the manual alphabet, and writing are the chief means used in the instruction of the pupils, and the principal objects aimed at are

* 23:29

** See Chapter XIII on Manual Alphabet.

mental development and facility in the comprehension and use of written language. (7)

The manual method prevailed in the schools for the deaf in the United States until the growth of articulation teaching which resulted in most of the manual system schools becoming combined system schools. Few schools considered themselves "manual-system" schools after the Sixth Convention adopted resolutions to the effect that articulation should become a part of every school curriculum. Many combined system schools leaned more in the direction of teaching by manual methods than others and most schools, except for the pure oral schools, maintained manually taught "slow classes."

A school which employed instruction by the manual method during the entire day but gave fifteen minutes of articulation teaching was called a combined-system school just as was the school in which the pure oral department and the manual department were kept separate.* It is apparent, then, that the method used in many of the schools for the deaf was nearly a manual method although the school was called a combined system school.

While a number of papers were presented defending the use of manual methods of instruction in the combined schools there is no information given as to how many schools continued to employ this method after the introduction of articulation teaching.

D. ORAL METHOD

According to the definition given in the *AMERICAN ANNALS OF THE DEAF*, the oral method employs as its chief means of instruction, speech and speechreading, together with writing. The aim is facility in speech and speechreading as well as mental development and written language. The use of the manual alphabet and the language of signs are forbidden to all employees of the school (7).

It is impossible to go into detail concerning the many techniques and the different ways in which oral instruction

* See B. Combined System of this Chapter for a discussion on Dr. A. L. E. Crouter's paper concerning this issue.

is begun and developed in the oral schools. Many of these have been discussed in the Chapters on Language, Speech, Speechreading and Preschool. There are a number of papers listed in the Bibliography of this Chapter which discuss this particular aspect (38) (40) (44) (50) (51) (56) (58) (59) (61) (69) (70) (73) (74) (75) (76). Some of the papers deal mainly with oral work in the preschool and primary grades (59) (72) (76).

At the Seventh Convention, in 1870, W. A. Cochrane pointed out that pupils taught by articulation must of necessity begin school earlier (about age seven or eight) than children taught by the language of signs. He believed a trial of one or two years enough to form an opinion as to whether or not the child would be successfully educated by the oral method. The period of instruction should be lengthened by three or four years, also; the seven or eight year period of instruction should be substituted by ten or twelve years (37).

Emma Garrett, at the Tenth Convention, in 1882, presented a stirring plea that the deaf-mutes of America be taught to use their voices. She was a confirmed believer in the oral method of instruction for all deaf children and stated that the congenitally deaf children in her class—22 out of 24—were the most successful pupils. Miss Garrett stated that deaf children should be treated in the same way as hearing children, except that their mind must be reached through the eye instead of the ear. When they realize that they are being taught to talk as others their ambition and enthusiasm is kindled. She emphasized that the best oral schools had proved that the deaf can be developed mentally through lipreading and speech. Habitual association with hearing people who speak is a major item in her system of educating deaf children (39).

Miss Garrett, as well as a number of other advocates of the oral method, deplored instruction under the combined system conducted mostly in the language of signs with thirty minute daily articulation drill (39) (45) (52). She was not alone in stating that unpleasant speech was no argument against the oral method; the desired results gained

when the method is properly taught are intelligible speech, correct lipreading, and an education acquired through speech (39) (40).

A number of papers were presented emphasizing that manual and oral departments be kept entirely separate in schools for the deaf. W. F. Taylor (41), Dr. Richard Elliot (42), and Dr. A. L. E. Crouter (60), at the Twelfth, Thirteenth, and Seventeenth Conventions, respectively, stressed this in their papers.

Dr. Richard Elliot, in 1893, disparaged the use of the language of signs, declaiming them as unnecessary and pernicious in the class room. He strongly emphasized in his paper that even those deaf who cannot learn speech should still be taught by the oral system since it can do at least as much as the manual system and it acquaints the pupil with the living language of the world (42).

Dr. Caroline A. Yale, at the Thirteenth Convention, in 1893, also stressed the language aspect as an advantage of the oral system (43). This theme is evident in a number of papers (62) (63) (64) (69) (73) (74) (75). She asserted that the teaching of English under the oral method claims for itself a certain naturalness and to the child who understands and uses language, it makes available history, sciences, and mathematics, as well. Moral training can best be communicated through spoken language because attention is concentrated on the face of the speaker where emotions express themselves most naturally (43). Dr. Crouter, also, emphasized this point at the Nineteenth Convention (64).

It was brought out by E. C. Jordan, at the Thirteenth Convention, that success in the oral method is measured by the ability of the pupils to recite orally in the school, converse orally, and later attend schools for the hearing (44).

E. S. Thompson, at the same Convention, explained that the speech habit must be formed and can be formed in no way except by an education in speech by the use of speech. He brought to mind that all of the early instruction of the deaf was oral; the language of signs was not introduced

as a means of instruction until the Eighteenth Century. He quoted Mr. DuBois (a man born deaf and a teacher of the deaf), who said, in reference to the work of the French teachers:

The deaf was never dumb until he became entrusted to your lamentable care: it is your signs that have made him dumb. Why keep him from speaking? . . . speak to him from his earliest infancy, speak to him often, speak to him continually, and he will answer you in the end.*

Mr. Thompson heartily agreed with Mr. DuBois and made this quotation the theme of his address. He mentioned that according to Dr. A. G. Bell, one-fifth of all deaf pupils were taught by the oral method at that time (1893) (45). Dr. A. L. E. Crouter substantiated this statement by Dr. Bell, in his paper on "Statistics of Articulation Work in America." (48).

Two papers were presented at the Thirteenth Convention, on "The Orally Taught Deaf After Graduation." (46) (47) Mrs. S. G. Davidson believed that the oral school graduate possesses advantages over the graduate of a manual school, i.e., 1. through lipreading and speech, he is in closer contact with the world and learns its ways more rapidly, 2. he is able to take orders from the employer by lipreading, 3. he mingles more freely with his fellow workmen, and 4. he can freely take part in conversation with intimates. She ascertained that if the social barrier between the deaf and the hearing is to be broken down, it will be through speech and lipreading, not through the language of signs or writing (46).

A. W. Orcutt, writing on the same subject, was more liberal in his ideas, possibly because he himself was deaf. He agreed that speech should be taught systematically, scientifically, and gradually in the beginning years until the speech habit is cultivated, but when lessons begin to require explanations which would be tedious in lipreading, the deaf should be taught by signs. He quoted from a letter from a deaf graduate on this subject which stated that the orally taught stand between two classes, having

* 13:145

affinity with both, belonging to neither. The hearing and the manually taught deaf have languages of their own which in neither case is perfectly intelligible to the orally taught (47).

E. S. Tillinghast, at the Eighteenth Convention, in 1908, pronounced as oral failures

. . . all those pupils who after from three to five years of oral instruction have reached a point where the necessity of receiving and expressing ideas to the teacher in speech acts as a continual incubus upon mental activity and it becomes clearly necessary to sacrifice the mental development of the child or turn to writing and manual spelling as the principal means of communication.*

He emphasized that teachers should

. . . study each child as it develops, and always sacrifice the method for the child, and never the child for the method** (62)

Possibly one of the most outstanding of all the papers which appears in the *Proceedings* concerning the oral method is Dr. A. L. E. Crouter's paper, "The Possibilities of Oral Methods in the Instruction of Deaf Children." This paper was presented at the Nineteenth Convention, in 1911. The points most emphasized are 1. that the oral method is for all classes of deaf children, 2. that the indispensable requirements for success are an intelligent teacher and a pupil with a mind capable of development, 3. that the essence of the oral method should not be measured by proficiency in articulation alone; even if speech is unintelligible, he would still be on a par to express himself with the manually taught, with the added advantage of having a brain better developed, 5. that the corner stone of the oral method is lip-reading, and 6. that it is of secondary importance whether he expresses his ideas in speech, in writing, or in spelling; all these being English (64).

Dr. Crouter maintained that not more than two or three percent of deaf pupils are unable to acquire enough speech and lipreading for all class room work and general purposes, and that usually any deaf child that cannot be instructed orally cannot be instructed at all. He asserted

* 18:58

** Ibid

that the reading habit becomes an early and permanent acquisition under the oral method (64).

A number of papers were presented at the more recent Conventions concerning the oral method as it was used at the Lexington School (72) (73) (74) (75) (76). These papers are discussed under the Chapters on Language and Speech.

At the Thirty-third Convention, in 1947, Dr. Sherman K. Smith, presented a paper on "New Methods in Oralism." He said that the road to new methods for oralism lies in the improvement of phonation. He suggested that there should be a " . . . permanent committee for yearly evaluation of teaching techniques, looking forward to the complete rejuvenation of Oralism."* (77)

* *American Annals of the Deaf*, 93:253

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CHAPTER XVII

NECROLOGY

NECROLOGY notices or obituary records first appeared in the *Proceedings* of the Seventh Convention and have been included as a part of the *Proceedings* thereafter with two exceptions.* The earlier notices gave complete biographical sketches but these were reduced to a minimum in the later *Proceedings*. These notices, especially the earlier ones, constitute an excellent biographical reference of educators of the deaf.

The names are listed alphabetically under each volume of the *Proceedings*.

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George Hutton
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*There are now three exceptions. The 1963, *Proceedings*, did not include a Necrology notice.

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CHAPTER XVIII

NOMENCLATURE

Only a few papers have been given at the Conventions on this controversial and important subject. In various other papers, however, the terms under discussion were defined. These refer to terms used in the education of the deaf.

Dr. H. P. Peet, on page 24 of the Fourth *Proceedings*, referred to the Code of Justinian which defined various classes of the deaf. Nomenclature of the language of signs was an early problem. The language of signs was classified in this form on page 78 of the Second *Proceedings*: 1. alphabetic signs (manual alphabet), 2. natural signs, 3. methodical

signs, 4. conventional or arbitrary signs. Mr. Turner on page 100 of the same volume divides signs into two groups, i.e., natural—an acting out of an idea and arbitrary—signs which do not illustrate the idea but with which the idea is always associated.

At the Twenty-third Convention, Dr. E. L. LaCrosse (1) discussed the need for clarification of terms and the standardization of nomenclature in the field of acoustic training.

Nomenclature generally centers around the attempt to define clearly the distinction between the deaf and the hard of hearing, as well as the different types of deafness.

Elwood A. Stevenson gave a paper on this subject at the Twenty-ninth Convention and at the next Convention gave the report of the Conference Committee on Nomenclature. Dr. Stevenson (2) (3) said that there is a need for a clear cut definition of deafness that will be acceptable to the layman, the teaching profession, and to the medical profession. Terms such as deaf-mute, deaf and dumb, dumb, semi-mute and the like are misleading and incorrect and should be dropped from usage. Briefly, Dr. Stevenson would define those who cannot use their hearing for conversational or educational purposes as the deaf. Those who can use their hearing for these purposes with or without a hearing aid would be termed hard of hearing.

Dr. Stevenson pointed out that the educational problems of the deaf and the hard of hearing are different and that they should not be educated together. He said that children are admitted, not committed, to residential schools and they return to their communities as educated citizens after their graduation. Better grouping and classification can be obtained by attendance at a large residential school. The advice of the educated adult deaf is worth listening to since they know the problems and limitations of the education of the deaf. Dr. Stevenson concluded that the Conference of Executives of American Schools for the Deaf can give the best advice and counsel to those who are interested in the deaf.

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CHAPTER XIX

PERIODICALS AND PUBLICATIONS

THE AMERICAN ANNALS OF THE DEAF, the official organ of the Convention, is the most discussed publication at the Conventions. Its progress and growth can be traced through the editors' reports to the Conventions, and other reports (1) (2) (11) (13).

The topic that was most discussed at the Convention under this heading is school papers. Greener (3) said that these originated between 1868 and 1878 and that by the latter date most schools had some sort of paper. They were not appreciated at first but soon won universal acceptance in the schools. These papers were of great interest to the pupils and many of them subscribed to their papers after leaving school. The object of these early papers was to provide vocational training for the boys in printing.

The object of the school papers soon became a debated issue. At the Twelfth Convention, Hubbard (5) said that the school paper should be used to develop reading interest in the pupils. He said he had obtained excellent results by using the paper in the class room. Denys (6), in a paper presented to the next Convention, said the school paper should be for the children and that the language should be on a child's level. Caldwell(10), at the Nineteenth Convention, carried this idea several steps further. He told the members that the purpose of the school papers was to educate the pupils, the parents, and the public. He said the public gets its information from the newspapers which are often misinformed; the school paper should give correct information to the public at large. The school paper should also give the parents a better understanding of their deaf children. For the pupils he suggested a daily leaflet containing school and current news.

Anderson (12), in 1937, returned to the vocational aspect and said that the purpose of the school paper was to give students experience so they could get jobs. From this point of view, he criticized the form, shape, and make-up of

school papers as being impractical for vocational training purposes. He pointed out that most boys taking printing training would work on newspapers rather than the magazine-type of paper published by most schools. He recommended that students be given a greater control and interest in their own papers and that both the academic and vocational departments participate in the work.

The possibility of petitioning the government for free published materials for the deaf like that received by the blind was discussed by Larson (8) at the Fourteenth Convention.

There has been no further discussion on this subject since that time.

The Industrial Journal, a publication to show the success of deaf men and women in industrial life, was mentioned at the Eighteenth Convention. It was hoped that this magazine would do for the industrial department what the *ANNALS* and the *Association Review* (now the *Volta Review*) had done for the academic departments.*

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CHAPTER XX

PRESCHOOL

Dr. Grace Langdon, a specialist from the Parent Education and Nursery Schools Department, Washington,

*See Chapter I on The History of the Convention for information regarding these publications.

D. C., at the Thirtieth Convention, in 1937, presented a brief history of the nursery school in the United States. According to her report, the first nursery schools were established in this country in 1919. Between 1919 and 1932 approximately 300 nursery schools had sprung up. She pointed out that nursery schools in other countries had begun almost entirely as welfare associations but that in the United States they were educational institutions from the beginning (60).

Dr. Langdon emphasized that the growth of nursery schools under the W. P. A. Program had broadened the standards of these schools without lowering them. The nursery school, she indicated, designates children between the ages of two and four; the kindergarten designates children from four years of age to school age (60).

Dr. Langdon stressed the value of preschool education for all children on the ground that there is much a child needs to learn before he learns to read and to write, i.e., in experience, in habit formation, and in getting along with other people. She personally believed in no segregation of any sort with a handicapped child (60). Dr. Langdon was not alone in this idea since a number of educators of the deaf contended that there are advantages in placing deaf and hearing children together in the same preschool group (62) (77).

Very early in the *Proceedings*, it is found that members discussed at what age children should be admitted to school. At the Third Convention, in 1853, they were talking of the feasibility of instituting a primary department. In a report submitted by William W. Turner and J. Van-Nostrand, members of a Committee concerning primary instruction, there appears the following statement:

... In order to be well educated, a Deaf-mute should in our opinion have two years in the primary department, beginning at the age of eight; . . . * (1)

This was considered by some members a very early age at which to admit children in that period.

The first reference made to true kindergarten work came at the Eleventh Convention, in 1886, when Z. F. Wester-

* 3:85.

velt discussed the kindergarten program at the Rochester School. Children as young as six years of age attended school five and one-half hours each day. The children spent most of the hours at play; they learned to sew and to weave, to finger spell, write, and speak simple words and sentences (2). At the Fifteenth and Sixteenth Conventions, in 1898 and 1901, respectively, Mr. Westervelt again spoke of their kindergarten program. At this time he mentioned that the program had been in effect for twenty years (established in 1876) and that all the children were under twelve years of age and most were under nine. The program then consisted of speech, speechreading, the kindergarten gifts (by Froebel), language, number work, sewing, drawing, and carpentry (8) (11).

It is clearly evident that in the earlier years kindergarten work included children of an older age than in more recent years. At the Thirteenth Convention, however, Dr. Job Williams mentioned that children were taken as young as three and four years of age (3). At the Fifteenth Convention, in 1898, Weston G. Jenkins discussed the kindergarten program for children from seven to twelve years of age (6), and Richard O. Johnson approved of children attending kindergarten from six to eight years of age (9). At the Sixteenth Convention, in 1901, Agnes Steinke mentioned that children in Germany were accepted in schools as young as two years of age, but that the work done there was simply recreational (16). At the Seventeenth Convention, in 1905, Lola C. Hine, expressed herself as believing the kindergarten age was from five to seven years. It is evident in later *Proceedings* that the average age for kindergarten children dropped lower than in the earlier years.

In 1929, at the Twenty-Sixth Convention, Dr. John E. Anderson stated that schools were then taking children from the age of eighteen months to five and six years (44). At the Thirty-first Convention, in 1939, Mary New and Catherine Riber, presented a paper on nursery education at the Lexington School which mentioned that the children there were three years of age (65); Doris E. Wood from the same school discussed nursery education for four-year olds (66). Sister Anna Bernadine from St. Joseph's School in Missouri, at the Thirty-second Convention, in 1941, spoke

of admitting children at the age of two and one-half years (75). At this Convention, Mary New stated that the Lexington School considered all children between the ages of two and one-half to five years of age candidates for nursery school (76). It is generally agreed that preschool education for the deaf concerns children under six years of age.

K. D. Partridge, at the Fourteenth Convention, in 1895, in discussing the kindergarten methods, stated that there are chief values in this education in that it establishes the habit of attention, concentration, and orderly thought. Included in the program were devices to train proper breathing and posture, to develop a sense of rhythm, and to cultivate the imagination (4).

W. K. Argo, at the Sixteenth Convention, in 1901, warned of the dangers of kindergarten. He stressed that great harm can be done by teachers who do not understand the business. Habits of play may be formed causing the child never to realize that work is a part of the business of life. He stated that while the theory is a good one, it cannot always be carried out successfully. It is not feasible to admit preschool children into schools where there are not facilities for those under six years of age (15).

There are very few papers or discussions found in the *Proceedings* which deny the merits of the kindergarten system. However, at the Thirty-first Convention, in 1939, Dr. Leonard Elstad, said that children should be kept in the home as long as possible. He suggested also, as did Dr. Argo, that the play idea once acquired is difficult to break. He was of the opinion that children should be at least five to six years old before they enter school (67).

On the other hand, a great many papers were presented lauding the positive aspects of preschool education (12) (13) (16) (17) (18) (21) (24) (28) (55) (59) (67) (68) (74). It is possible to mention only a few of these here. At the Sixteenth Convention in 1901, Mary E. Scheetz mentioned that kindergarten work helps to overcome the lethargy peculiar to little deaf children; it educates the mind, the body, the soul, and improves the disposition of the child (17). Dr. Joseph C. Gordon, at the same Convention, considered the social training—how to live with others—the

greatest value of preschool training (18). Margaret McGill, at the Seventeenth Convention, in 1905, brought out another aspect of significance, i.e., that ideal homes for deaf children are very rare, whereas conditions in school are more favorable (21).

Richard O. Johnson, at the Eighteenth Convention, in 1908, presented the following values derived from kindergarten training: 1. it develops quickness of perception, concentration, and a sense of order, 2. the child develops self-reliance, 3. he gains confidence—mentally, socially, and physically (24). At the Twenty-ninth Convention, in 1935, Linda K. Miller submitted the results of a survey which she had completed showing that superintendents and principals were not enthusiastic about the preschool program because of the increased expenses incurred, but that teachers agreed for the most part that the program is very worthwhile. According to her survey administrators confessed that they were lacking in the experience necessary for this kind of system and that many schools were without suitable accommodations (55).

Eloise Kennedy, at the Thirty-first Convention, in 1939, presented the results of an experiment which indicated the value of preschool training. She cited that fifty-nine preschool children at the Illinois School had been kept separate for two years. After attending regular classes they rated higher on both the Gates and Stanford Reading Tests. She said the teachers agreed that these children did better work generally than children who entered school later without preschool training (68).

A more recent report concerning this subject was presented by Jane Olmstead, at the Thirty-third Convention, in 1947. She stated that the greatest amount of disagreement on nursery schools centers around points on whether or not residential schools should provide this type of training at all and whether children really benefit by it. Some teachers contend that they have found it pays great dividends; others insist there is no evident difference at all between the nursery trained children and children who come into school at six years of age (80).

It is not indicated in the *Proceedings*, the number of preschool departments which existed at various periods, except

for one instance. At the Eighteenth Convention, in 1908, Chairman of the Preschool Section, Richard O. Johnson, stated that there were then only thirteen distinct kindergarten departments in schools for the deaf; forty-eight schools had none. He mentioned that some use of kindergarten methods and materials were made in the first three primary grades.*

In the early kindergarten training for deaf children, much use was made of the thirteen kindergarten "gifts" and occupations invented by Friedrich Wilhelm Froebel (7) (8) (10) (12) (23) (26) (34) (48). These were designed to develop free creative ability in the child, give him skill in the use of his hands, and lay a foundation for a systematic scientific education which would be of value in whatever occupation he might later be engaged (34). A description of these gifts and the manner in which they were used was given in a paper by Sadie M. E. McArdle, at the Twentieth Convention (34).

The use of Froebel's gifts gradually lessened in kindergarten work among the deaf. A. E. Moore, at the Twenty-first Convention, in 1917, in discussing "The Reconstructed Kindergarten," intimated that while Froebel's system contained fundamental and sound truths, he had not discovered all the truth. The new trend, according to her paper, was an emphasis on the natural instincts of the child—some which should be repressed and others which should be encouraged. The newer methods stressed self-expression to a greater degree. Miss Moore suggested that Froebel had designed his program for children living in rural areas with an eye to selecting things of universal interest to the children. She believed that children's interests vary with their environment, making a universal course of study impractical (36).

The Montessori Method designed for preschool children was presented at the Twentieth Convention, by Anne E. George. The purpose of this method was to "set free the spirit" of the child and develop his mind and personality. It is established on the theory that education is a medical problem rather than a pedagogical problem. It places strong emphasis on the individual (32). A number of

* In a discussion following a paper by Cornelia Bingham (25).

schools employed this system or a part of it in their preschool program (32) (34) (35) (48).

The Belgian Method of Instruction which stressed "occasional teaching" (teaching as the occasion arises) and the system of identification exercises (labelling objects in the room) was used in preschool work at St. Mary's School in Buffalo (49) (57) (58) (64).

A number of papers at various Conventions presented the daily schedules followed in preschools for the deaf. These programs did not differ radically from one another, but stress was laid on different aspects in the various schools (24) (34) (47) (51). A number of preschools gave considerable time to the teaching of speech and lipreading (8) (9) (23) (24) (47) (51) (61) (66) (69) (71) (75). Some stressed the element method (20) (51); others taught the syllable method and the word method (47) (71) (84).

Sense training in particular is discussed in other papers (33) (39) (45). Beginning language, also, is the subject of some papers under the Preschool Section (6) (7) (31) (46) (49).

It should be noted that art (8) (22) (29) (34) (51) (63) (73) and rhythm (4) (34) (43) (50) (51) (61) are included in many of the preschool programs, in addition to the usual items—sense training, speech, speechreading, rest period, play periods, lunch, the training of residual hearing, language work and number work.

A number of papers were presented pertaining to special subjects used in nursery or preschool training, i.e., nature work (5), "Kitchen-garden Plays" (10), education through play and folk dancing (30), activity programs (50) (51), play materials (52), and silent reading (50). Material on tests and testing occur to some extent in other papers (52) (56) (68) (82). Later papers emphasize beginning auricular training for very young children (66) (71) (76).

There are two other types of programs in connection with preschool education which should be noted, i.e., correspondence courses and the teaching of deaf children in the homes by trained teachers. John Dutton Wright, the founder and director of the Wright Oral School, New York City, is the author of the "Wright Correspondence

Course," designed to help children between the ages of sixteen months and four to five years, by helping their parents (40) (41) (42). Wright explained at the Twenty-fifth Convention, in 1927, that the course consisted of twenty-seven installments and included 306 daily programs (41).

At the Twenty-eighth Convention, in 1933, Dora I. Gay presented an explanation of the work done by the Sarah Fuller Home in the homes of preschool deaf children in and around Boston. This program was organized in 1888, at West Medford, Massachusetts, by Mrs. Frances Brooks. It was discontinued during the war, but reorganized and aided by the advice of Mabel E. Adams, principal of the Horace Mann Day School, Boston. In this system, trained teachers were sent into the homes to teach children who were too young to attend school. Parent education was an integral part of this unique program (48).

As far as the *Proceedings* indicate, preschool education is looked upon with favor for the most part by teachers of the deaf whenever facilities in the schools are adequate. It seems to be the general opinion that this early training helps the child to become better-adjusted socially and mentally and lays a good foundation for regular class room work.

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CHAPTER XXI

PSYCHOLOGY

PSYCHOLOGY in relation to the deaf is a relatively new subject in the Convention. However, as early as 1895, Clarke(1), at the Fourteenth Convention, said that teachers should observe the psychology of the deaf. He advised teachers to determine their methods of presentation from their observations of the children. He said that the big problem was how to lead the minds of children to develop faster and more naturally.

Putnam (3), at the Twenty-third Convention, stressed principles; he said that the five elemental qualities needed in every walk of life are 1. constructive imagination, 2. reason, 3. concentration, 4. language, and 5. memory.

Patterson (4), at the Twenty-sixth Convention, gave a report on the Pintner-Patterson survey of deaf children. He pointed out that the deaf rated highest in motor control and recommended that more emphasis be given to industrial education.

At the same Convention, Race (5) gave the following as reasons for maladjustment among deaf children: 1. concentration on themselves, 2. over indulged, 3. severe domination, and 4. poor home environment. She said that poor

compensation is illustrated by alibis, rationalizations, sour grapes, and superiority conceptions.

Abernathy (6) discussed the use of psychological tests with deaf children. He pointed out to the Twenty-seventh Convention that age of onset and residual hearing are factors that must be weighted in addition to the other factors in the tests. He advised teachers to remember that: 1. tests should be carefully selected, 2. objectives should be clearly defined (one should know what one is testing), and 3. that a battery of tests is more satisfactory than one or a few tests. He suggested that test results should be used in grouping pupils and corrective work. Nilson (7), in discussing this paper warned teachers not to go overboard on testing. He stressed correct interpretation of test results and advised teachers to learn testing.

Plant (8) pointed out to the Twenty-eighth Convention that the deaf need help in their adjustments. He said that a sense of security and a feeling of belonging to the group were important factors in the problem of adjustment.

Wile (7), at the same Convention, indicated the need for better tests for the deaf, especially adequate tests to measure intelligence. He told the Convention that because they were rather egotistical and because their phantasies were limited, there was less actual neurotic behavior among the congenitally deaf than either the hard of hearing or those who lost their hearing later in life. He also stressed the herd instinct of the deaf and advised that they be aided in developing social contacts. Silent reading as an outlet for lack of social intercourse was also suggested.

Martens (10), in discussing individual differences at the Twenty-fourth Convention, emphasized the use of achievement tests. She said that another excellent means of discovering the individual differences is the teacher who is in close contact with the child over a long period of time. She emphasized educating each child in keeping with his abilities, limitations, and interests. Various other subjects were discussed; among them were 1. types of individual differences (physical, intellectual, emotional, and environmental), 2. classification and promotion, 3. reading materials, 4. the mentally retarded, and 5. activity programs.

In an excellent paper on "Mental Hygiene," Carleton Washburne (11) of the Winnetka Schools, emphasized three points as follows: 1. the need for security, 2. the need for self-expression, and 3. the need for social adjustment. Dr. Washburne told the Twenty-ninth Convention that a child needs a home-like environment, an understanding and interested teacher, and school work that he is capable of doing, if he is to feel secure. He also expressed the opinion that self-expression and independent thinking are needed in our day when the tendency is to mold everyone in the same pattern. Regarding social adjustment, he said that children must be helped to see the similarity of interests between themselves and society.

Pintner (12) at the Thirtieth Convention, stressed the idea of adjustment. He reported findings of people in the field of testing. According to his information, the deaf 1. rated lower than the hearing in social competence, 2. were retarded in their knowledge of social conduct, 3. had more fears than the hearing, 4. desire immediate satisfaction rather than greater future satisfaction (a more infantile type of reaction), and 5. have a tendency to be more introverted, less stable emotionally, and less dominant than hearing children.

Dr White (13) pointed out to the Thirty-second Convention that the teacher is also under consideration by the psychologist. He emphasized the importance of the attitudes, reactions, and personality of the teachers. He also discussed teacher-pupil relationships and the home in relation to the pupil.

Dr. Elizabeth Peet (14), at the same Convention, emphasized the need for teaching ethics and manners to the deaf. She said that only by developing pleasing personalities can the deaf hope to be happy and successful.

Brill (15), reported to the Thirty-second Convention, the latest results in testing in schools for the deaf. He presented a brief history of the testing programs in schools for the deaf, starting with psychology tests given in 1906 by MacMillan and Bruner. He reported the results of intelligence tests given to the deaf as follows: 1. an average I.Q. of not quite 90, 2. corroboration between intelligence and learning tests, 3. little difference between age of on-

set, and 4. little difference between the congenital and the adventitiously deaf.

He also noted that most of the deaf level off at the fourth grade in their reading tests; those who pass the fourth grade go far beyond but the other scores seem to center around the fourth grade level. He stressed the need for some means of carrying the deaf beyond this point.

The lack of language has always been a big factor in the testing programs of the schools for the deaf. There is still a need for tests for the deaf in which language is not a great factor. However, standard tests of all sorts are being used to a greater extent in all the schools for the deaf. This is a field which is open and needs considerable research and study.

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CHAPTER XXII

READING

Much of the material on reading was discussed in papers on language and the oral method as both of these topics depend a great deal on reading for their fullest expression. The importance of reading has been recognized and

discussed throughout the history of the Convention but it is rapidly becoming one of the most important subjects to be considered in the education of the deaf.

Keep (1), in an early paper at the Third Convention, said that by the end of the fifth year it should be assumed that the deaf have a framework of language. From that point onward the deaf should develop their language by reading. He suggested Goldsmith's *Unabridged History of England* as a book suitable for this purpose.

It was pointed out to the members of the Eighth Convention by Job Williams, that the deaf need reading much more than do other men and that improvement in language can be noted in pupils who like to read. He suggested that teachers have on hand at all times graded reading materials for the pupils to read in their leisure time.

Thomas F. Fox (5), at the Twelfth Convention, stressed the importance of reading in these words, "The best criterion of successful teaching of the deaf, is the continuance of right reading habits beyond the school, . . . "* He said that at that time (1890) reading was not taught as a class room exercise. He advised teachers to start reading in the primary grades—giving the children the same stories that hearing children like. He bemoaned the fact that many deaf children never heard of Cinderella, Red Riding Hood, or Old Mother Goose. He also presented a list of books which could be read by the deaf and he also indicated which of these were suitable for the congenital deaf.

D. R. Tillinghast (6), at the same Convention, suggested that large reading charts be used in place of books for the smaller children. He further suggested that these contain interesting passages and be properly illustrated. He emphasized the fact that the need for reading was readily acknowledged yet in practice it was not appreciated.

Moseley, at the Twelfth, Davidson at the Thirteenth, and Roberts at the Sixteenth Conventions, emphasized the need for good reading habits. Moseley (7) said that pupils who disliked reading should be studied for clues to their interests. He added that any reading would do for a start; the

* 12:211.

main idea was to get the pupils interested in reading. Davidson (8) pointed out that all of the educated deaf had been great readers. He insisted that reading be emphasized as an end and means to future ends. He felt as others did that reading interests should start in the kindergarten. Roberts (11) said that the reading habit should be fixed while pupils are reading for pleasure. He also included in his paper a list of good reading materials for the deaf.

Much of the early work in reading was conducted in the language of signs and manual spelling. A pupil was assumed to know a passage if he could read it silently and then explain it in the language of signs. Spelling a passage on the fingers was also a form of reading and was used as a means of memorization in many cases (1) (5) (6) (9) (11).

Miss Rosa Harris (9) discussed the teaching of English Literature at the Fourteenth Convention. She said that she taught both poetry and prose using spelling, writing, and the language of signs. The purpose of this course was to cultivate a literary taste and to develop the imagination. In prose work she taught *Ivanhoe*, *The House of Seven Gables* and *the Man Without A Country*. She guided her class into leisure time reading of *The Talisman*, *Westward Ho*, *Ben Hur*, and *Ramona*.

At the Fifteenth and Sixteenth Conventions, Teegarden (10) and Balis (12) discussed adapting reading materials and stories to the needs and abilities of the deaf. They agreed that most material for hearing children was too difficult for the deaf of the same age.

Fusfeld (15) reported the results of a survey on reading to the Twenty-fifth Convention. His survey was made to determine what books should be read by students preparing for College. He found from reports of books most frequently read by the deaf that the classics and semi-classics predominated. Those reported most frequently were *The Man Without A Country*, *Courtship of Miles Standish*, *Evangeline*, Lamb's *Tales from Shakespeare*, *Jungle Book*, *Ivanhoe* and *Wild Animals I Have Known*. He said that selections from the complete list would be used over a five year period as entrance requirements for Gallaudet College.

Several demonstrations of silent reading were also given at the Twenty-fifth Convention. Miss Bennett (16) demonstrated the system of introducing written words before they were learned in speech or speechreading. This system was the result of experimental work by Helen Thompson under the direction of Arthur I. Gates. Miss Branigan (17) demonstrated the use of flash cards, pictures, descriptions, and books in teaching reading to the primary grades. Mrs. Carter (18) demonstrated an oral method of reading instruction as taught in the Ohio School.

Miss Ford (19), at the Twenty-seventh Convention, suggested several points to remember in teaching reading to primary classes. She said that 1. too many new words should not be introduced at once, 2. vocabulary should be functional, not isolated word studies, 3. the reading material must appeal to the interest of the child, and 4. a variety of reading materials should be used.

At the Twenty-eighth Convention Rachel Dawes Davies (20) outlined a plan for teaching reading. She stressed that comprehension of written forms of a word should precede speaking and lipreading the same word. The order in which she taught was as follows: 1. matching pictures to objects, 2. matching pictures with words, 3. intransitive verbs (imperative), and 4. phrases and sentences. Phrases and sentences are introduced as soon as possible to prevent the pupils from becoming "word readers."

Patton (21), at the Twenty-ninth Convention, told of some results of the use of the Gates Primary Reading Tests with deaf children. She said that reading was the most important of all subjects as all other subjects are dependent upon it. She found that the deaf were weakest in paragraph meaning and that they needed a great deal of remedial work. In another set of tests, the deaf did well on the section, reading to note details, but did poorly on the sections, reading for general significance, reading to predict outcomes, and reading to understand directions.

Gladys Davis, (22), at the same Convention, reported on work with preschool children. She said that she had taught four-year olds to read with comprehension stories of four to five sentences. These pupils had a reading vocabulary

of four hundred words. This reading was done in connection with an activity program.

Miss Hannah Oehler (23) told the members of the Twenty-ninth Convention that there were considerable difficulties in using regular textbooks for deaf children. She suggested that the deaf be taught to read for information and to get meaning from context and pictures instead of isolated words. She said that special difficulties should be made into class lessons.

Parks (24), reported some remedial measures he found to be useful in raising reading test scores of the deaf. He said that the causes of retardation in reading are: 1. inferior learning capacity, 2. defective vision, 3. narrow span of recognition, 4. ineffective eye movements, 5. inadequate vocabulary, 6. inadequate attention to content, and 7. guessing vs. recognition. To correct a narrow span of recognition, he suggested the use of flash cards up to the fourth grade. He stated that remedial work depends on: 1. individual diagnosis, 2. individual instruction, 3. measurement, and analysis of progress, 4. motivation, 5. systematic remedial work and 6. special habits not formed through general teaching. He said a remedial reading program should be based upon easy reading.

Josephine Bennett (25) of the Lexington School gave a demonstration of silent reading at the Thirtieth Convention using a great many types of material. Among those she used were the following: primers, workbooks, stories to be illustrated following directions, conversational stories, dramatizations, reading games, bulletin boards, projects and many others.

In a paper on reading given at the Thirtieth Convention Ruth Strang (26) emphasized the method originated by Dr. Helen Thompson. Miss Strang said that 1. as many pre-reading experiences must be provided for the deaf child as possible, and 2. that the deaf should be given practice material that would build up many associations with the word. She emphasized that the constant use of the same words over and over again in new associations would give a variety of meanings to each word.

Hockett (28) presented a paper entitled "Essentials in A Modern Reading Program" to the Thirty-first Conven-

tion. In this paper he gave the characteristics of a good reading program as 1. adequate preparation (mental age six and one-half years), 2. reading readiness, 3. mastery of skills, 4. integration of the development of skills, taste, and interest, 5. integration of reading and other school experiences, 6. content of reading materials, 7. adaptation to individual differences, and 8. reading many materials for many purposes. He said that deaf children especially, should start reading in sentences, and that they should use new types of textbooks which contain a smaller vocabulary load but more reading material.

Mrs. Davies (29) pointed out, at the Thirty-second Convention that hearing children get correct language as the result of habits formed by many contacts with correct language. She suggested that the deaf child may be able to get this frequent contact with language through reading, especially in the early stages of his learning. She advocated more and better reading, not mere recognition of words which leads to "word reading" but the reading of sentences to get mental pictures, ideas, and interpretations in the light of past experience. She also suggested introducing various forms of the verb as soon as possible to prevent the one form from becoming a habit which will be difficult to change at a later time.

Several papers on reading were presented at the Thirty-second Convention. Standley (30) listed some of the "Prerequisites of a Deaf Reader." She said the child must have average intelligence, an understanding of language, and a great deal of reading matter on all levels of ability. She stressed teaching the child to think by having him give back the main idea of what he had read.

Kennard (31) and Jones (35) discussed reading in the primary grades. They both emphasized reading as an approach to language rather than vice versa. Miss Jones suggested the use of a curriculum based upon three years of preparatory work and then close adaptation of public school work. Under this system the first two years would be devoted to the use of teacher-prepared materials; the third year would be spent on primers and easy first readers. From the fourth year on the course would follow the

regular reading program starting with first grade reading texts.

Paris (32) and Watson (33) discussed reading in the various departments of the Georgia School. Miss Paris said that children need 1. experiences, 2. use of ideas, 3. command of English, 4. interest. She maintained that the deaf child should have forty to fifty stories read to him each year. Miss Watson outlined a course of reading for the advanced department. Materials in this course ranged from fairy tales in the advanced preparatory class to English and American literature and more advanced world literature in the higher grades.

Miss Oehler (34) gave an interesting paper on "Reading Readiness" at the Thirty-second Convention. She said that for readiness children should learn to 1. follow left to right, 2. note differences, 3. note likenesses, 4. note differences in directions, 5. to complete units, 6. reproduction, and 7. sequence. Some of the means of acquiring readiness suggested by Miss Oehler were individual news, flash card work, seat work, having a story every day, and class accounts of happenings.

The value of reading to the deaf cannot be over-emphasized. In a society which is almost totally literate, reading skills and understanding have become so important in every day living that the deaf will not be able to get along without them. More emphasis will undoubtedly be placed upon this most important subject at future Conventions.

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CHAPTER XXIII

RELIGIOUS INSTRUCTION

A stronger emphasis on religious education for the deaf is clearly recognized in the earlier *Proceedings* of the Conventions than in the later ones. The founders of the education of the deaf in the United States and the early teachers,

entered this field believing it their life work to educate the deaf in religious matters. A strong religious atmosphere surrounded the first schools during the first half-century. Since then, superintendents, though devout, laid less stress on the religious and placed more stress on academic and industrial attainments (5) (35). There is evidenced a gradual lessening of reference to God and spiritual matters in papers, reports, and addresses, these giving way to discussions entitled "ethics," "morals," and "social and character development." The trend is toward moral and utilitarian training and reflects the general trend of the times.

It has been noted time after time by those who have addressed the Convention on the subject of religious education that the deaf child must look to the school for all he may receive in religious and moral instruction. The school alone must provide for the deaf child what he should have attained through parents, friends, and the church had he been a hearing child (15) (20) (24). Children are dependent entirely on their teachers for *all* knowledge (15). Dr. W. H. DeMotte, at the Fifteenth Convention, 1898, said to the teachers, ". . . you stand in the God-place, and they look to you for what God has for them."* (24)

Dr. Charles M. Jacobs, at the Twenty-second Convention, in 1920, considered the deaf child as "more nearly 'raw' material than in the case of the hearing child." This, he considered an advantage in that the teacher has an opportunity to mold the child's spiritual life and character in the best possible way (36).

In virtually every paper presented, the power of the teacher in influencing the child's religious attitude, his character, his personality and his morals was stressed. The teacher as a living example to the child cannot be overemphasized. It is probably the point most often stressed throughout the papers on religious education (4) (9) (10) (14) (15) (24) (30) (32) (36), and others.

There is evidenced a change in the type of material used in Sunday School work between the years 1850 and the present day. A number of articles and discussions list a

* 15:188.

variety of books, pamphlets, and other publications used through the years. These include, also, suitable material of a moral nature for Sabbath reading (7) (11) (12) (14) (17) (18) (22) (26) (28) (32). The use of pictures in teaching religious and moral truths is recommended (32).

Much valuable material on both early and recent programs for religious education in institutions for the deaf containing Sabbath Day schedules are presented in the discussions as well as in papers and are included in the Bibliography following this Chapter (3) (7) (11) (17) (22) (25) (26) (28) (31) (32) (37) (39) (40). It was a practice mainly in the earlier years to hold daily religious chapel programs (31) (37) (39), but as late as the Twenty-seventh Convention, in 1931, Mr. Charles D. Seaton made a plea to the members not to abolish chapel exercises (37). His plea was heartily received by those present at the Convention. Members agreed that those services were best in which the pupils were allowed to participate.

From the very First Convention to the last *Proceedings* published it has been generally agreed that chapel should be conducted in the language of signs (1) (2) (3) (7) (21) (22) (37) (39). Evidence is given, however, that in some schools chapel was being conducted orally with success (27).

There is a wealth of information on *what* should be taught along religious lines (6) (13) (14) (22) (30) (32) (34) (41) and *how* to best teach religion (24) (28) (32) (41). There were differences of opinion in these matters from the very beginning of Convention Assemblies. However, most administrators believed that nothing of a sectarian nature should be taught in the institutions (3) (13) (14) (15) (16) (31). Many approved of sending children to the churches of their parents, while a number of well-organized schools provided for a priest, a minister from various denominations, and a rabbi to come into the school and instruct those of their own faith (26) (29) (38) (39).

At the earlier Conventions discussions arose concerning the proper way in which to spend leisure hours on the Sabbath Day. There were, as might be expected, diverse opinions regarding this matter (12) (17) (25) (28).

Only in the earlier papers are found indications that religious material was used in the classroom, mingled with the daily lesson, as for example, used in language work and reading (3) (5) (8) (18) (19) (22).

Religious Societies and organizations of a moral and character strengthening nature were very popular in institutions and were advocated as early as the Eleventh Convention, in 1886. It is quite possible that such organizations existed in schools for the deaf before this time but were not mentioned specifically until then. The earliest group meetings mentioned of a religious type were Prayer-Meetings and there is noted a change from this kind of meeting to a variety of organizations whose purpose was to aid the pupil in his spiritual, moral and social life (16) (25) (28) (30) (38) (40) (42) (43).

The Rev. Thomas Gallaudet, at the Thirteenth Convention, in 1893, stated that the greater part of the work in religious education for the deaf had been accomplished by The Episcopal Church. At that time this Church employed six hearing and six deaf priests in the ministry to the deaf (21).

A paper, "Rise and Progress of Religious Work Among the Deaf By the Deaf," was presented at the Twentieth Convention, by Amos G. Draper, 1914, in which may be found a brief history of religious work done among the deaf in the United States by the Episcopal, Methodist, Baptist, Lutheran, and Presbyterian Churches. At that time there were eleven graduates, two honorary graduates and several others engaged in this work. He describes the purpose of their work, i.e., to conduct and encourage meetings for literary culture, promote entertainments and socials, and to influence pure and upright personal conduct (33).

J. W. Jones, Superintendent of the Ohio School for the Deaf, 1917, discussed the amount of work done by the churches for the deaf. He spoke of the work done among the adult deaf by missionaries in various parts of the United States. His paper includes the names of twenty-six men engaged in such work and their location. All but four of these were in active duty at that time (35).

A few general conclusions may be drawn from the papers and discussions presented at the Conventions concern-

ing religious education of deaf children. The emphasis on religious instruction disappeared, (except in the parochial schools), after the first fifty or sixty years and was replaced by an emphasis on social and character development. This seems to parallel the trend found also in public schools and society in general.

Just how much effect the change from the completely manual method to the combined and the oral method has had on this important aspect of the education of the child is difficult to estimate. It has been stated many times in the *Proceedings* that the language of signs is peculiarly adapted to reaching the deaf in the realm of spiritual and abstract thought. This may or may not be a fact. However, it does appear that while the children were instructed manually much more was done in the way of religious education for even the youngest children in the schools for the deaf. There have been exceptions to this as far as the *Proceedings* indicate but they are for the most part the parochial schools in which religion is an integrated part of the curriculum.

Many schools have assumed an indifferent attitude toward the subject of religious education, leaving the Scouts, literary societies, and other young people's organizations of an altruistic nature to take care of social and moral education.

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CHAPTER XXIV

RHYTHM

THE earliest reference made to rhythm in the *Proceedings* was in connection with the play activity of the child. At the Nineteenth Convention, in 1911, Frances Wettstein expressed the idea of educating the child through play—games and folk dancing (1). Rhythm appeared as a part of the program of play primarily for the development of character, self-expression, self-mastery, imagination and bodily control (2).

Lena Herschheifer, herself deaf, at the Twentieth Convention, presented a paper in which she discussed how musical vibrations aid in the development of the voices of the deaf. Miss Herschheifer indicated that voice training—learning the notes of the scale—helps to improve the voices of the deaf in pitch, volume, and tone (2).

It is noted that a number of schools for the deaf included rhythm in their programs (3) (8) (9) (10), especially in the curriculum of the youngest children, without mentioning their specific objectives in teaching it. It was contained in the play activity of the daily schedule and at that time no indication was given that an intensive course of rhythm was taught for the purpose of developing the voice.

Later, at the Twenty-first Convention, Pattie Thomason, recommended rhythm as an aid of improving the quality of the voices of deaf children. She outlined a method designed to reduce tone-deafness in the voice. After giving the child an idea of sound, the mechanism of speech should be subordinated to the idea of tone. There must be made an association between hearing the tone and feeling it. The piano was made the center of speech teaching operations with the guitar, flute, bell, bass drum, and the teacher's voice as additional instruments. Miss Thomason stated that the child should be taught to hear with his hands. The object of this type of rhythm teaching is to get variety and tone color into the vowel sounds—which are the sounds we hear chiefly in music and speech. Scale work was given to make the voice flexible and to keep good tone after it had been acquired. She believed that all voice training should be done in the spirit of play (4).

Marie K. Mason, at the Twenty-fifth Convention, in 1927, also correlated rhythm with voice work. A grand piano was used and the work consisted of three phases, i.e., voice exercises, songs, and rhythm. The children were taught to beat and to mark time, to perform illustrative movements to music, to recognize pitch, and to perform rhythmic drills with a ball. Miss Mason made use of a toy orchestra which included the bass drum, snare drum, cymbals, triangles, bells, tambourines, castanets, a toy xylophone, and the piano. Not only kindergarten themes were included in their repertoire, but comprehensive music was used such as the Anvil Chorus, Barcarolle, and Evening Star (5). The toy band or orchestra was popular also with other teachers of rhythm (5) (15) (20).

Mrs. Pearl Constantine of the Gough School for the Deaf, San Francisco, held the idea that orchestration aids in the development of alertness and coordination; it promotes confidence in the child since it is something he can do as well as a hearing child (15).

Margaret S. Kent, at the Twenty-sixth Convention, in 1929, gave a rhythm demonstration which included work in vibration, pitch, resonance, accent, time, songs, dances, and drills. In accent, chords were played corresponding to the words—the accented syllable receiving the

stressed chord. Children could distinguish between the different time signatures as the music was played for them (6). Speaking at the Thirtieth Convention, in 1937, Miss Kent made clear the three lines along which rhythm has been developed for use in the education of the deaf. She said:

In respect to movement, rhythm has been incorporated in physical education, which includes gymnastic drills, rhythmic games, and various forms of dancing, especially folk and tap dancing. In respect to rhythm in sound, educators of the deaf have been concerned with rhythm as it appears in speech; that is, the accenting or emphasis of syllables in the enunciation of words, in the phrasing of sentences and the rhythmic flow of speech . . . educators have also been concerned with the rhythm of sound as it is received through the ear and which has been termed "auricular training." *

Miss Kent explained that after educators had discovered that the deaf child could distinguish vibrations by the piano with comparative ease, rhythm diverged into two directions. One was the further development of the physical aspect of rhythm and the other was the transfer of the sense of bodily rhythm to speech. In addition to these benefits derived from rhythm, Miss Kent pointed out the psychological advantage in giving the child a means of "self-expression." She spoke of a recent development in auricular training directly connected with rhythm termed "eurhythmics," and experimental program which was being conducted at the Lexington School for the Deaf (11).

Mary R. Van Nest from the Lexington School presented a paper, "Eurythmics," which explained in detail the program mentioned by Miss Kent. Eurythmics, as defined by Miss VanNest, "is a combination of speech and rhythmic movements." ** The object of this system is to gain a more natural fluent speech pattern through the simultaneous use of exercises. As a result, children become so engrossed in the exercises that their attention is directed away from their voices and their tones assume a pleasing and natural quality. This program was used in all classes with children from five to fifteen years of age for a twenty minute period weekly. With the youngest children syllables were first said to music as they felt

* 30: 32-33.

** 30: 37.

vibration at the piano; later they repeated them as they skipped or walked about the room. At the same time as they received the vibration from the piano they listened through a Sonotone used in connection with the piano. The piano-Sonotone combination gives auricular, tactile, and rhythmic trainings all at the same time. The program included, also, games, songs, and dancing—tap, folk, natural, modern and social. Miss VanNest believed that dancing improves breath control and helps accent, phrasing, and fluency of speech (12).

Mrs. Pearl Constantine, also at the Thirtieth Convention, spoke concerning "The Advantages of Rhythm for the Deaf," and stated that the social attitude of the child is greatly improved by the awareness of rhythm. She expressed the idea that accent in movement should precede accent in speech (15).

Florence H. Olsen, at the Thirty-first Convention, in 1939, considered rhythm an aspect of speech teaching. She defined rhythm as "movement marked by regular recurrence." * The recurrent factors are, 1. stress, 2. pitch variation, 3. pauses, 4. rate or movement, and 5. quantity. She discussed in her paper how to secure relaxation, breathing, voice, stress, pitch, pauses, fluence, correlation of rhythm with classroom work, and recordings and hearing aids. (17)

Miss Olsen stressed the importance of making speech records of the voices of the children at regular intervals for diagnosing speech defects and measuring speech improvement. Contained in her paper is an outline of a practical rhythm program which stresses the importance of selected material and time economy (17).

Mrs. Nettie Rodechko Hilbert and Elizabeth Emerson further discussed the subject of eurythmics at the Lexington School at the Thirty-first Convention, in 1939. Their paper points out that the primary purpose of the system is to develop a normal rhythmic flow of speech, not work with articulation. The three main instruments used in developing rhythmic patterns were the piano, drum, and group hearing aid. At this time the pupils attended class for twenty minute periods twice a week. Included in

* 31: 29.

their paper are rhythm programs set up for four different age levels and a bibliography of books used at the School containing rhythm exercises, dances, and songs (18).

Mimi Scheiblauber from Zurich, Switzerland, delivered a paper at the Thirty-first Convention concerning the value of rhythm in the curriculum of the Cantonal Deaf Institution, Wollishoffen. She said, in effect, that rhythm aims at the best possible development of the spiritual, physical, and mental powers of the child. Miss Scheiblauber explained that

The elements of which music consists are rhythm and measure, agogics and dynamics, variations in time and vigor, melody and harmony, as well as form. These all make up the chief elements of speech. By familiarizing the deaf with these elements . . . , we help them to speak more naturally . . . *

The method of instruction in rhythm at Zurich was both acoustic-tactile and visual-motoric (19).

Mrs. Grace W. McAllister from the Territorial School, Hawaii, maintained that rhythm training helps to solve personality problems and aids in social adjustment. Rhythm, the heart and soul of music, is not closed to the deaf child. Included in her program are percussion band work, rhythmic speech, and dancing. A hearing aid is used with the piano for voice work and for the training of residual hearing (20).

Lucille Riggs Corrington explained to the members attending the Thirty-third Convention, in 1947, that all rhythm work at the Illinois School for the Deaf is presented with the use of hearing aids; it is an acoustic-rhythm program (22).

Mardine H. Parish, also at the Thirty-third Convention, pointed out that even though elements of speech may be correctly pronounced by the deaf, the elements of rhythm may be so lacking as to produce unintelligible speech to the layman's ear. Through a correlation of rhythm and acoustic training more natural speech can be developed (23).

Eugenia Burnet, in her paper entitled, "The Correlation of Rhythmic Speech and Reading," explained how through the development of rhythmic speech by making provisions for the improvement of basic reading skills and the extension of desirable reading habits, an effective reading program can be organized (24).

* 31: 197.

It is evident, then, that rhythm as it was first utilized in the education of the deaf, was mainly for the purpose of developing bodily poise and physical development. While this is still a desirable result, rhythm in later years had been used more and more in connection with the teaching of speech and acoustic training. It is not a subject included by all the schools for the deaf; many consider it a luxury which may have its benefits but a subject which is not an absolute necessity. The schools which do make use of rhythm in their work endorse it highly; for the social and psychological advantages alone, it would seem to merit a place in the curriculum.

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CHAPTER XXV

SCHOOLS

Schools for the deaf fall into two particular types, the residential school and the day school. Residential schools are schools where a home is provided for the pupils while they receive instruction. Day schools are schools where pupils come to receive instruction for a number of hours each day; the school officers having no responsibility over them outside of the school hours. The topic of schools is thus divided into these two general headings.

Residential Schools. The earliest schools for the deaf in this country were residential schools, therefore the earliest papers on the subject of schools are about residential schools. Thomas Gallaudet (1) told members of the First Convention how the school rooms should be arranged and what they should contain. Gillett, at the Seventh and again at the Eighth Convention, gave papers on the organization of a school for the deaf. At the Seventh Convention he explained the purpose of the institution, the need for a board of trustees, characteristics needed by the executive head, and the establishment of an industrial department (2). At the next Convention, he discussed the institution in terms of its location, site, buildings, and appliances. He suggested that the school be located in the suburban area of a centrally located city in the state. He also suggested that there be different buildings for the various departments, a departure from the custom of crowding as much as possible into one building (3).

At the Thirteenth Convention, Talbot and Robinson discussed the family life of the institution. Talbot (5) said that the difference in background and character made perfect harmony impossible. He also said that it was difficult to find and keep persons who were capable of being parents to the children. Robinson (6) complained that the pupils were given so much that they did not appreciate what was done for them. He said that the school should be plain, neat, simple, and comfortable but luxuries should be omitted. He felt that the pupils needed more of life's hard knocks in order to develop self-reliance, independence, and habits of thrift and industry.

The subject of home life in the schools was also discussed in a conference at the Nineteenth Convention. Euritt (7) leading the conference, said that the children should have some responsibilities and that they should also have social opportunities. In the discussion that followed, it was agreed that the children should be educated to lift the standard of living at home.

Johnson (8) and Pintner (9) at the Twentieth and Twenty-second Conventions respectively, discussed the efficiency of the schools. Pintner presented an elaborate plan for measuring the accomplishments of the schools in order to set up certain standards for all schools to follow. Among the items to be measured he included school plants, teachers, curriculum, educational measurements, and mental tests. He also suggested comparing school, classes, oral and manual pupils, and hearing and deaf pupils on the basis of test and survey results.

Dr. Ellis (10) told the Twenty-eighth Convention that there must be more cooperation between the institutions and the public schools. He said the objectives of work with the handicapped were 1. prevention, 2. education, and 3. development of a normal life. This attitude showed a change of opinion when compared with a paper given by G. O. Fay (4) at the Eleventh Convention. In this paper, Fay said that although there were advantages to day schools, pupils in them did not progress as fast as institution pupils. He also said that home life did not do much for their education.

Day Schools. E. A. Fay (11), in a paper on day schools, at the Seventh Convention, said that there were some advantages to day schools but that the disadvantages outweighed the advantages. He said that better results were produced by the institutions. He offered the dangers of the streets and value of day schools in larger cities only, as disadvantages of the day schools. In the discussion following his paper the reasons for the founding of the day schools were given as ignorance, poverty, and indifference of parents, and the distance, expense of travel and terms of admission to the institution.

Sarah Fuller and R. P. McGregor at the Thirteenth Convention agreed that day schools were of value. Miss

Fuller (12) said the benefits of the day school were 1. a gradual acquaintance with a new life, 2. meeting and mingling with new faces and then returning home to familiar ones, 3. daily experiences going to and from school, 4. encouragement from an interested family, and 5. indirect help from playmates in play. Mr. McGregor (13) said that day schools reached a class of children who would be otherwise neglected. He noted, however, that day schools for the deaf had a high per capita cost as compared to public schools, and that they were lacking in teachers and supplies and that irregular attendance was quite common.

Hammond (15), at the Fourteenth Convention, discussed the advantages and disadvantages of day schools. He gave home influence, experiences going to and from school, self-reliance, earlier admittance, and association with hearing children as advantages of day schools. The disadvantages that he listed were irregular attendance, poor grading, lack of competition, lack of trades training, and absence of religious training.

Wettstein (16) presented a paper to the Twentieth Convention in which she advocated that all mentally normal deaf children should be sent to day schools. She suggested that the residential schools cooperate by taking the mentally retarded and deficient pupils and those who had already learned the language of signs. Dr. Harris Taylor remarked on this that, "It looked very much like the lion and the lamb lying down together, the lamb inside the lion." *

Several papers have been presented in reference to what day schools have done in certain areas; Spencer and Ward told different Conventions what had been done in Wisconsin with respect to day schools. Spencer told the Fourteenth Convention of the early work done by the day schools in Wisconsin (14). Ward (19) at the Twenty-sixth Convention, gave the history of the day school system in Wisconsin and what they have been attempting to do. Van Adestine (18) and Croghan (17) gave papers about day schools in Detroit and London, respectively.

The subject of residential schools as opposed to day schools is and has been one of great controversy. It is

* 20: 111.

obvious that there is much to be said for both types of schools and that each has its advantages and disadvantages. A system of cooperation utilizing the advantages offered by both schools would seem to be the solution, but until such a system is devised the controversy seems destined to continue unabated.

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CHAPTER XXVI

THE LANGUAGE OF SIGNS

Most of the papers concerning the language of signs are found in the first fourteen *Proceedings*, from 1850–1895. These papers pertain to the beauty of this language, the various types of signs found in the language of signs, and the language of signs as it was used for the purpose of imparting instruction to the deaf.

There were a number of early papers written on the language of signs in reference to its universality and power (9) (19) (20) (21). R. H. Kinny, at the Fifth Convention, in 1858, believed this language alone to have the power of awakening the mind of a young deaf person. He wrote in regard to the language of signs (9):

. . . The charm of this magic language thrills along the nerves of those whose ears are their eyes. . . . It clears their clouded intellects, and sends their sluggish blood leaping with electric life, through their veins.**

. . . This noble language, so universal and powerful, wielded by skillful and benevolent men, is the great agent for the intellectual improvement and moral redemption of the Deaf and Dumb.***

** 5: 88.

*** 5: 89.

Isaac Lewis Peet, at the Twelfth Convention, in 1890, said that

. . . There is no eloquence that deaf-mutes can appreciate except what comes to them in the form of signs. No appeals to the intellect or the emotions can touch them, in equal degree, by any other means.*

A later paper by Dr. J. B. Hotchkiss, at the Twenty-second Convention, in 1920, presented his ideas about the language of signs. He inferred that he knew most members would consider his subject out-of-date in that period. Dr. Hotchkiss quoted Halleck: "The man who does not think by images will never be a clear thinker." **

Dr. Hotchkiss expressed the use of signs as thinking in images—conceptional thought. He warned against the prevalent method of confining the most plastic period of the development of the child to a restricted exercise of its faculties. He blamed the non-use of signs for the lack of imagination in the deaf child (28).

There was considerable discussion as to the different types or classes of signs contained within the language of signs. Members defined the classes in various ways as is pointed out in the following discussion.

Lewis Weld, at the Second Convention, in 1951, divided the various types of signs used in the instruction of the deaf into four principle classes, i.e., 1. alphabetic, 2. strictly natural, 3. methodical, and 4. conventional or arbitrary. The first class, alphabetic signs, referred to the manual alphabet (2).***

Natural signs, he stated, were most important in the early instruction of children. These signs are pantomimic and, according to Mr. Weld, applicable to the most elevated subjects; the deaf themselves use this type of language (2).

Methodical signs,**** as he explained them, include natural signs, but are made essentially alike under all circumstances for each word. This type has many subdivisions: time, human relationships, passions, all of the

* 12: 108.

** 22: 241.

*** See Chapter XIII on Manual Alphabet for a discussion of this type of communication.

**** Methodical signs were devised by de l'Epee and Sicard, and introduced into the United States by Dr. Thomas Hopkins Gallaudet.

parts of speech, and synonyms. Mr. Weld firmly believed that these signs should be used in the instruction of the deaf in the class rooms, especially for the purposes of teaching the principles of grammar, the construction of sentences, and correct writing. Sentences should be given in methodical signs and then interpreted in writing by the pupils (2).

Conventional or arbitrary signs are signs used by only a few persons in familiar conversation mainly for the purpose of convenience and saving time. They are often used for proper names and usually have only a local application so that they are not generally understood. Arbitrary conventional signs may be used in jesting, but not in elevated discourse; they are not used by the intelligent teacher (2).

Dr. Harvey Prindle Peet, also at the Second Convention, presented a paper in which he stated that the language of signs is strictly a natural language containing certain elements common to pantomime everywhere. Dr. Peet explained the different elements from which the language of signs is formed. He presented three classes of signs, i.e., signs of indication, signs of description, and signs of reduction (4).

The first, *signs of indication* are the simplest class of signs—strictly natural signs, e.g., merely pointing to an object and using appropriate facial expression. These can be understood and used by people unfamiliar with the language of signs (4).

Descriptive signs are used to describe objects unfamiliar to a person or to recall familiar objects to one unacquainted with the dialect of signs. *Signs of reduction* are abbreviations of the former, used in familiar conversation; the single gesture denotes the object (4).

In a discussion following a paper by Dr. Keep at the Fourth Convention, in 1856, Dr. H. P. Peet again gave a discourse on the three classes of signs and added a fourth—metaphorical or allegorical signs, which deal with the passions and emotions of the heart and intellectual operations. He explained that this class of signs enables the language of signs to ascend from the material to the intellectual and moral world.

William W. Turner, at the Fifth Convention, in 1858, classified the language of signs into three groups, i.e., 1. significant signs (exact imitation of the action or outlining an object), 2. conventional signs (signs agreed upon generally to denote a thing or idea), 3. arbitrary signs (signs which bear no resemblance to the thing signified, usually mutually understood by two persons). He explained that systematic or methodical signs are made up of all three of the classes mentioned, arranged to correspond exactly with the words in an English sentence. Through the use of these signs the inflections of verbs can be marked, variations of nouns and pronouns can be indicated, and the degrees of comparison in adjectives and adverbs can be made clear, so that any sentence can be dictated (11).

Mr. Turner made a distinction between sign words (single gestures) and the language of signs (connected form of speech) and explained their differences (11).

Isaac Lewis Peet, at the Sixth Convention, in 1868, discussed the value of "Initial Signs." He believed that the language of signs was deficient in general terms, abstract terms, and in synonyms which could show distinctions of meanings. To meet the need, Dr. Peet suggested combining the initial letter of the word plus the radical sign (basic sign) and a suitable expression on the countenance; this would produce a variety of synonyms corresponding to those of verbal language. Dr. Peet gave a number of examples of initial signs and explained how they are a means of improving the language of signs (13).

J. Scott Hutton, at the Seventh Convention, in 1870, gave an exposition of the system of mimography, a system of reducing the language of signs to a written or printed form. This idea took root in the mind of his father, forty years earlier, but had never been published. He demonstrated the different types of lines appearing in this unique system which represented the different motions used in making signs. The manuscript of mimography, he explained, could not be read by merely looking at the characters; but a knowledge of the key and a fair application of it would make it easily accessible to the reader. The system, according to Mr. Hutton, was designed to serve as an instrument of instruction, a time and labor saving device

which would give the deaf the same facilities for acquiring English that American students possess in the study of another foreign language. (16)

At the next Convention, in 1874, J. Scott Hutton, in a letter to the Committee on mimography, regretted that it was impossible for him to put into shape his father's system since the volume containing the drawings of 1,000 signs was lost. A resolution was adopted that Mr. Hutton furnish for publication in the *Annals* such further exposition as might seem to him desirable of the scheme of mimography (17).

In a discussion following the reading of "The Use of the Sign Language," by F. D. Clarke, at the Twelfth Convention, in 1890 (22), Madame Alberti of Paris, an exponent of the Delsarte System, gave a demonstration of this system as applied to the language of signs. The method stressed the use of beautiful and graceful movements of the body as a means of expressing thought.

It is necessary, in connection with a discussion on the language of signs to give a brief account of the existing controversies between leading exponents of this language.

The Rev. Collins Stone, at the Second Convention, in 1851, strongly disagreed with Mr. Weld concerning the use of methodical signs. He stated that methodical signs represent *words* not ideas and he did not agree that methodical signs could aid the pupils in learning correct language. Language is made up of ideas. The only way a deaf person can learn language is by becoming familiar with the laws of construction. The position of the word in a sentence depends upon its meaning and the idea which is to be expressed. Natural signs convey ideas, but methodical signs are arbitrary by nature; they do not convey to the mind the idea which they represent. Then, too, Mr. Stone pointed out that methodical signs are apt to mislead pupils with regard to the meaning of words. Many words have synonyms and in using methodical signs each word must have a distinct sign. The time and labor necessary for learning them is a serious objection since there is often no association by which they can be fixed in the memory (3).

Dr Harvey Prindle Peet, in a discussion following this paper, agreed that methodical signs are strictly *verbal*

signs and that natural signs should be used instead for conversation, abstract proposition, religious instruction, and imparting knowledge. He stated, however, that methodical signs may be used to advantage for the purpose of teaching the construction of language. Mr. Turner placed the language of signs into two classes, i.e., natural signs and arbitrary signs. When natural signs are arranged in the order of words in a sentence they become methodical or systematic signs, according to his definition. These signs he believed valuable in the instruction of the deaf. Mr. Cary agreed also that such signs should be used in the early education of the deaf.

Luzerne Rae, who favored the use of natural signs in the instruction of the deaf, was very much opposed to the use of methodical signs. At the same Convention, in 1851, in referring to the existing controversy between advocates of natural signs and advocates of methodical signs, he said,

. . . The French successors of SICARD, if you ask their real opinions will whisper in your ear that this distinguished man, with all his merits, was very much of a charlatan; a judgment from which those will hardly dissent who believe, as I do, that his system of "Methodical Signs" is a complete piece of charlatanry, from beginning to end. This may seem rough language, and it may grate harshly across the deliberate convictions (I will not add to my sin by saying prejudices) of some who hear me; but I have little doubt that the time will come, and at no distant day, when all our American schools for the Deaf and Dumb, will follow the wise example of the Paris Institution and that of most of the others in France, by entirely discarding methodical signs from their course of instruction.*

William W. Turner, also at the Third Convention, in 1853, favored the use of methodical signs in the teaching of grammar to the deaf (7).

Dr. Isaac Lewis Peet, at the Twentieth Convention, in 1914, stated that he used both ideographic (natural) and methodical signs, but preferred the ideographic signs which correspond to the true genius of the language of signs (20).

At the Seventh Convention, in 1870, E. Gates Valentine, argued against using the language of signs in the prevailing

* 3: 166-67.

order, that is, the noun before the adjective, e.g., "a horse black," rather than "a black horse." This was another subject of controversy among authorities on the language of signs. He stated that the language of signs has no natural order and that it should adopt the English order. Children cannot be expected to learn the English order correctly unless they form the habit of using it correctly in the language of signs (14).

After the presentation of this paper, Mr. Talbot rose in disagreement with Mr. Valentine. He stated that the order of signs is not the order of the English language, but the language of thought. One must say, "A horse black." Dr. Edward Miner Gallaudet agreed with Mr. Valentine in respect to having the signs follow the natural English word order. He warned that while he loved and admired the language of signs, this language is a very dangerous thing for deaf children in school who are striving to master the English language. He stressed the fact that the great aim of the education of the deaf is to master the English tongue. The language of signs, he declared, was over-used in the school rooms. Heated arguments ensued on these issues.

Mr. Keep took great exception to the remarks of Dr. Gallaudet. He said,

. . . It seems to me monstrous that it should be asserted here that the sign language, as is confessed by all, the only medium we have by which to introduce the deaf-mute child into the knowledge of English speech, is a dangerous thing to use in the instruction of deaf-mutes.*

Dr. Harvey Prindle Peet also expressed his opinion on the statements made by Dr. Gallaudet concerning the disuse of the language of signs. He believed that signs might be used in the order of words *after* the meaning of the words had been taught; otherwise they could not be. He said,

. . . It seems to me that if the use of signs is pernicious, and if they are not to be employed in teaching the meaning of words, our institutions should be abolished and the deaf and dumb children should be sent to com-

* 7: 68.

mon schools, . . . to learn English by usage. . . . I have not been more astonished in the whole course of my life than I have been at the utterances made on this occasion by the President of the Deaf-mute College at Washington, so totally different from everything which was taught by his illustrious father, who had implicit faith in the importance and in the full power of the language of signs as an instrument and communication, which he held and acted on through life.*

P. G. Gillett rose to defend Dr. Gallaudet. He stated that he believed Dr. Gallaudet was seeking for something better than the present system, and that he would stand by his friend (Dr. Gallaudet) in his desire for progress and improvement in the art of instruction.

Isaac Lewis Peet, also at the same Convention (Seventh), explained that in order to produce an effect upon the mind and conscience, the language of signs should be used in its own order. However, at the Eleventh Convention, in 1886, he reversed his opinion somewhat and stated that the latest advances in the language of signs were to use them in the general order of the English language. He advocated not giving a sign for every word, but he believed that it was generally correct for a phrase, a clause, an idiom to be expressed in one or two signs (19).

At the Ninth Convention, in 1878, Robert Patterson said, concerning the order of signs, that they should *not* be used in the order of written language. He favored the use of natural signs with their natural freedom. Ideas must come first, then the words with their meanings explained (18).

The Chapters on Language, Methods of Instruction, and Speech include discussions on the controversy which existed between those who advocated the language of signs as a means of instructing the deaf and those who advocated instruction by articulation and speech.**

A number of educators of the deaf rendered papers at the Conventions advocating the use of the language of signs as a chief means of instruction (7) (9) (13) (18) (20) (21) (22) (27). The main purpose of its use in instruction

* 7: 70-71.

**The controversy between the use of the language of signs vs. the manual alphabet and also the use of methodical signs vs. natural signs are also discussed in the early sections of these Chapters and in the Chapter on Manual Alphabet.

was presented at the Third Convention, in 1853, by J. VanNostrand. He maintained that

. . . by the use of signs, his [the child's] faculties may be more rapidly strengthened and his mind stored with knowledge far in advance of his acquisition of written language, by which to express himself.*

Through the use of signs the teacher can explain distinctions in the uses and meanings of words (5).

There were also a number of educators of the deaf who advocated the disuse of the language of signs in the class room (23) (24). Many educators believed in the use of the language of signs *outside* of the class room for the purposes of religious instruction,** moral teaching, and the teaching of subject matter in the more advanced grades.

Several papers were concerned with improving the language of signs by teaching the correct forms of the signs to both pupils and teachers. At the Fourth Convention, in 1856, The Rev. John R. Keep emphasized that teachers be taught the correct signs, know their meanings, and be familiar with the syntax of the language of signs. He suggested that new teachers receive instruction from the principal (8).

J. M. Francis, at the Fifth Convention, in 1858, outlined a system for acquiring facility in the use of the language of signs. He deplored the fact that the art was deteriorating in the hands of young instructors (10).

The Rev. Thomas Gallaudet, at the same Convention, stressed the importance of teaching the deaf to use signs more gracefully and powerfully and enumerated ways in which to render the language of signs more effective (12).

Dr. J. B. Hotchkiss, a professor at Gallaudet College, in 1920, at the Twenty-second Convention, explained that plans were in progress at the College for restoring the language of signs to its purity and "revivify its picturesque appeal to the emotion" in order to "make it the power that it was in the old days in the hands of the Gallaudets, Peets, Huttons, Bartletts, Fosters, and Turners." *** Regular courses were being established for its rejuvenation (28).

* 3: 41.

** See the Chapters on Religious Instruction and Methods of Instruction, D. Oral Method.

*** 22: 241.

There are two rather recent papers which touch on the subject of the language of signs, one presented at the Thirty-first Convention, in 1939, the other presented at the Thirty-second Convention, in 1941. The first paper rendered by John Louis Horn, "An Outsider Looks at Deaf Education," contains a list of pressing needs noted by him. One of these pertains to the use of the sign language, i.e.,

. . . Further discussion of the question whether the teachers who follow the oral method should not cease their objections to the use of signing for social intercourse, since inability to communicate in ways other than lip reading and speech bars the deaf child and adult from easy association with other deaf persons.*

Tom L. Anderson, President of the National Association of the Deaf, presented the second paper mentioned, "The Challenge to Leadership" (30). Under a section of his paper entitled, "Respect for the Sign Language," Mr. Anderson wrote,

. . . Let us have a more frank admission of the true value of the sign language as a system of communication among the deaf and less of the disposition to stigmatize, to eradicate it. Let us regard it, at its best, as a valuable accomplishment, an instrument for good. The system of mongrel signs and mouthing, acquired by young people denied the example of masters, is forcing them into a group apart, for they cannot put across their ideas or understand the proceedings in a gathering of the adult deaf. They find themselves neither fish nor fowl. They are handicapped until they learn better.**

* 31: 94.

** 32: 199.

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CHAPTER XXVII

SOCIAL AND CHARACTER TRAINING

The interest in social and character training at later Conventions is a product of the times. In general, it represents the early day religious training in its present day modification, the emphasis being on the ethical standards, social graces and character development rather than the religious and spiritual aspects. This trend has been more fully developed in the Chapter on Religious Instruction. Extracurricular activities have been emphasized as a means of social and character development. Papers on this subject have been presented frequently at the later Conventions.

The purpose of social training as defined by Talbot (1) at the Fifth Convention was to transfer the deaf mute into a “. . . gentle, intelligent, refined, social being, independent and self-supporting, an ornament to society, and an equal of his more gifted fellows, . . . ”*

J. H. Cloud (3), at the Thirteenth Convention, said that the social standing of the deaf depends largely upon their school training. Therefore, education means more to the deaf than to those who can hear.

Gallaher (8) said, at the Twentieth Convention, that the deaf should be taught the difference between religion (belief) and morals (character). He suggested that pupils should be taught social customs, i. e., how to make a call, carry on a conversation, to take part in a game, dance, and other requirements of society. Teaching the deaf manners was also emphasized by Jones (15), G. M. McClure (16), Grow (23), and Becker (39), Peet (53).

Nelson (6) told the members of the Twenty-first Convention that popular ethics is out of line with material progress. He said that the schools can bridge the gap between the moral and material aspects of our civilization. Ethics and morals were also discussed by O'Donnell (7), at the same Convention, and Cobb (14), McFarland (13), and McCluer** (56) at later Conventions.

Allabbaugh pointed out at the Twentieth Convention that the supervisor is very important in the building of

* 5: 38.

** Not to be confused with McClure.

character in deaf pupils. He suggested that supervisors and all concerned with the education of deaf children should teach character by their own example. He warned that little faults must be corrected before they grow into big ones. Divine (48) and Birck (49) also discussed the role of the supervisor in character education.

Miss Josephine Quinn (28) said that the greatest educational force is example. She stressed obedience, industry, thoughtfulness, and truthfulness as important factors in character building.

Wooden (50) defined character as the characteristics that go to make up a desirable type of citizen. He told members of the Thirty-second Convention that education is implied in character—that it cannot be obtained incidentally. He emphasized that deaf children must learn everyday conventions of right and wrong.

W. J. McClure (59), at the Thirty-third Convention, said that deaf children need social training. He said that the older children should have greater freedom and more responsibilities. He stressed the fact that normal boy and girl relationships are as important to the deaf as they are to hearing children. He said that the many should not be denied privileges because of the misdeeds of the few. The privileges should be denied the few if necessary.

Athletics and extracurricular activities as a means of developing character have been discussed many times at the Conventions. Literary societies were discussed at the Thirteenth Convention by Smith (4) and Balis (5). Scouting and military training were discussed at the Twenty-third Convention by Bjorlee (18). He said that military training develops alertness, better posture, improved physical and general appearance, and self-reliance. He said that much useful information was gained through scouting and that scouting was an aid to language and classroom work. Several other papers were given on these organizations at the Thirty-first Convention by Herrick (38), Wall (41), and Ingle (44). Girl scouts were also discussed at this Convention by McDonald and Westerfeld (45).

Berg (36) and Ambrosen (37) pointed out to the members of the Thirty-first Convention that the health and physical

education field has much to offer in the way of social and character development. They emphasized organized play programs, social activities surrounding games and sports, and the need for sex education. Mixed teams in various games were suggested as a way to teach poise, self-confidence, and normal reactions.

Other extracurricular activities were discussed at several Conventions. Clubs, hobbies, projects, programs, and other extracurricular activities were explained and discussed at these Conventions (27) (38) (43) (46) (51) (55) (60).

Moore (42), at the Thirty-first Convention said that extracurricular activities provide for the development of an all around individual. He divided these activities into eight groups as follows: 1. athletics, 2. recreational games and tournaments, 3. intramural sports, 4. scouts, 5. literary societies, 6. clubs and hobbies, 7. social events, and 8. military training. He said that in the Missouri School every child is encouraged to participate in some activity.

He explained the value of athletics in terms of its carry over into other fields and the competition with hearing pupils. Membership in the following clubs was voluntary: travel, knitting, camera, stamp collecting, and hiking. He pointed out that the director of extracurricular activities under this system had a great deal of responsibility and many duties.

Mrs. Poore (58) in a paper given at the Thirty-second Convention pointed out some facts about the social adjustment of the deaf. She said that the deaf should not expect to be treated differently than normal people. She advised the deaf to learn to make normal associations and not to remain isolated as their handicap does not generally arouse sentiment or sympathy. She also suggested some ways by which the deaf can be helped in their adjustments.

Other items of value in social and character development were discussed at various Conventions. Martens (40) discussed guidance at the Thirty-first Convention. She said that the deaf need help in planning, adjusting and developing life's purposes and that this can be done through discovering their needs and capacities. Beatie (20) and

Chamberlin (21) discussed culture for the deaf at the Twenty-ninth Convention. They emphasized that the deaf need to be taught good reading, form, and manners and that they must learn what is good and what is not good.

A. L. Brown (49) told the members of the Thirty-first Convention that boys and girls should be encouraged to mingle. He said that extracurricular activities are planned to be enjoyed by the group. He advocated academic organizations (literary societies), outdoor activities (picnics), and square dancing as excellent means of developing character.

Crammatte and Friedman (52) reported results of a study of people out on the job. They found many unwholesome characteristics of the deaf in vocations. Some of these are as follows: 1. lack of cooperation, 2. lack of initiative, 3. lack of self-reliance, 3. narrow-mindedness, 4. limited interests, 5. no social responsibility, 6. lack of social poise, and 7. emotional instability. They also found many characteristics that were good, among which were: good citizenship, desire for group improvement, promptness, and tolerance of creed and race. They said that the schools have a great responsibility if these unsatisfactory characteristics of the deaf are to be corrected.

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CHAPTER XXVIII

SOCIAL STUDIES

Geography and history early became a part of the curriculum in schools for the deaf. There have been several excellent papers given in the Conventions on the teaching of these two important subjects. Geography and history, although closely related, constitute two entirely different studies.

Geography: The study of geography develops observation and memory and is a valuable aid in teaching language (1) (3) (13). One of the purposes of teaching geography to deaf children should be to make objects he cannot see or visit real to him (2). The study should begin with the school locality, and should advance through the city, the county, the state, the country and then to foreign countries. This is the plan most generally suggested (2) (5) (9) (13).

In the primary grades preparation for geography includes learning directions, keeping weather and calendar records, simple map-making, and the study of plant and animal life. (2) (3) (4) (5) (7). Most of the teachers agreed that real geography should not be taught until the third or fourth year (7) (8) (11).

Various suggestions as aids in the teaching of geography were given; these range from the use of outline maps, sand tables, clay models and field trips to the use of magic lanterns or stereopticons (2) (5) (9) (11).

Dudley (6) at the Fourteenth Convention, said the pupils should be taught reasons and causes rather than facts. His system was to assign long lessons in the text and to explain the ideas by signs, pictures, drawing, writing, and apparatus. He then covered the same material in question and answer language.

The idea that geography and history should be correlated was brought out in several papers. Beattie (12) said, "Geography and history should go hand in hand in order to give vitality and visualization to both."* Miss Beattie's five year course in geography emphasized 1. the social and economic condition of man, 2. home geography, 3. relation of the new to what has gone before, and 4. the use of the project method. J. F. Bledsoe (8), in 1898, said that each geography lesson should be followed by one in history on the same subject. Historical places, he suggested, could be used as geography lessons.

History: A few excellent plans for teaching history have been given in papers to the Convention. In 1886, Goodall (14) said the best way to teach history to children is in story form. He made each lesson a language lesson and followed the stories with reference books and later textbooks.

At the Twelfth Convention, Caldwell (15) suggested that biographical sketches be used first to interest the pupils. His plan for teaching chronological order was to have the pupils start with the present date and make a chart, filling in dates and known information about the past. This would prepare the pupils for historical chronological charts.

Most of the speakers suggested that history be presented in a narrative style (14) (15) (16). McClure (16) said that the deaf do not hear allusions to historical people, places and events, therefore, these things must be taught. Biographical sketches and little mots about characters, motives, or the times, give added interest to the study of history.

* 22: 62.

The deaf, he said, must learn cause and result relationships in history.

Dr. J. Schuyler Long (17) emphasized that history stories are valuable even after the text is introduced. He told the Twenty-second Convention that he did not believe in rewriting the texts; he said, "Let them struggle with the language." He added that "Carefully prepared questions, explanation in class, and a topical reproduction will serve the purpose of simplifying and elucidating."* Dr. Long believed that the real study of history, using the topical method should not start until about the eighth grade.

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* 22: 69.

CHAPTER XXIX

SPEECH

Since additional material concerning speech is included in the Chapters on Speechreading, Methods of Instruction, and Rhythm,* this Chapter is confined to the direct teaching of speech or articulation from its earliest beginnings in the schools for the deaf in the United States as it occurs in the *Proceedings*. A brief description of the rise of articulation teaching in this country is presented in the Chapter on Methods of Instruction.**

The Rev. Thomas Gallaudet, the son of Dr. Thomas Hopkins Gallaudet, was the first to present his ideas in regard to the teaching of articulation. At the Third Convention, in 1853, he presented a paper entitled, "On Articulation and Reading on the Lips" in which he pointed out that there are varying degrees of deafness and that these degrees show themselves at different ages in different individuals. This factor, he believed, determines to a large extent, the progress which a deaf pupil can make through training in articulation. He explained to the members of the Convention that two extremes had grown into being in regard to teaching articulation and lipreading to the deaf. The first group contended that the language of words is necessary to convey thought forcibly and clearly, crowding into the background the training of moral and intellectual faculties; the second group favored the use of the language of signs, but went too far in this direction and ignored lipreading and speech entirely.

The Rev. Thomas Gallaudet believed that the majority had reached a compromise between the two extremes. He expressed that he was, personally, in agreement with their system. These held the idea that all general exercises in the class room and chapel should be conducted in the language of signs, the manual alphabet, or in written language, but that numerous individuals should be afforded the opportunity of cultivating the faculty of speech, especially those who had lost their hearing after acquiring spoken language. Until then (1853), Gallaudet pointed out, no adequate attention had been bestowed upon training

* See Chapters XXX, XVI, and XXIV, respectively.

** See pp. 185-86.

in the use of spoken language, whereas the language of signs had been developed into a

. . . perspicuous and harmonious system by means of which words, phrases, and idioms can be explained, involved sentences analyzed, and the precepts of morals and religion enforced; . . .*

He felt that if articulation were to be taught at all it should be taught systematically and thoroughly; a professor of articulation and reading on the lips should be employed in every institution where it was practicable. Such a professor should have his own room and pupils should receive instruction from him at times when they could best be spared from their classes (1).

In a discussion following Gallaudet's paper, Dr. Harvey Prindle Peet said that at the New York Institution two classes of pupils had been taught articulation successfully, i.e., those who had lost their hearing late in life after acquiring a knowledge of articulating sounds, and those with partial deafness. He maintained that articulation could be taught in the ordinary operations of the class room.

There was no action taken concerning speech proposed at the first five Conventions. At the Sixth Convention, Edward Miner Gallaudet presented the opinions of several leading educators in this field concerning articulation. E. A. Day from the New York Institution and Lewis Weld, from the American Asylum at Hartford, he explained, had examined the European systems and preferred the system of de l'Epee to that of Heinicke for the majority of deaf pupils. They agreed that only a portion of the deaf could be taught articulation successfully. Professor Leon Vaisse, from the Paris Institution, held the same idea, according to Gallaudet,

. . . that articulation can with success, and consequently must be taught to such deaf and dumb as once spoke; to such as, though never having spoken, have some hearing; . . .**

Professor Vaisse went a step further in giving a more decided testimony in favor of articulation. He said,

* 3: 244.

** 6: 55.

. . . and to such also as through great acuteness of perception can make up for want of hearing by the sense of sight and touch. The number of these pupils may amount to one-third of the whole, and sometimes upwards of it.*

He believed that an experiment should be made during the first year to decide whether or not the pupils should be kept under articulation instruction. If so, he favored that they should practice speech daily, having regular lessons outside of the ordinary school hours. In the common schoolroom such pupils should be addressed in speech and be required to speak their answers as often as it seemed consistent with the order of the lesson.

In connection with this same paper by Edward Miner Gallaudet, there appears a footnote in the *Sixth Proceedings*, page 55, concerning Horace Mann's report, in 1844, on the European institutions for the deaf who was highly in favor of the German system and indicated that it was superior to any system then used in America. Dr. E. M. Gallaudet expressed his opinion that Mr. Mann's testimony was

. . . entitled to little weight from the fact that he went abroad quite unfamiliar with the workings of our system and had had no experience in the care or instruction of the deaf and dumb. It was, therefore, natural that he should fall into the many errors of judgment which render his report on this subject of little practical value.**

Dr. Gallaudet admitted that American schools for the deaf were far behind schools on the continent in the use of articulation. He said that both French and German schools used articulation. In France, Belgium, Italy, Switzerland, Russia, Sweden, and Denmark, articulation was placed secondary to the language of signs, but entered into instruction far in advance of what it did in American schools. At the same time, he pointed out that the German schools recognized the value of and the necessity of signs in their instruction almost without exception. He believed strongly that a combined system of de l'Epee and Heinicke would be to the general advantage (3).

* 6: 55-56.

** 6: 55, footnote.

Those taking part in the discussion which followed Dr. Gallaudet's paper, seemed in general agreement that the deaf could be taught articulation in varying degrees and that while such instruction should not be overstressed usually, it should not be ignored.

As a result of Dr. Gallaudet's paper and the discussion which followed, this Sixth Convention, in 1868 (two years after the opening of the first permanent oral schools in the United States), took action recommending the teaching of speech to the semi-deaf and semi-mutes, but held that it was not profitable except in very rare cases to teach articulation to congenital mutes (14).*

At the Seventh Convention testimonies were given in regard to the successful teaching of articulation in various schools. Edward L. Bangs from the Michigan Institution indicated that success in that School justified the hope that such instruction would continue (3). In a discussion following papers on articulation, Mr. Dudley of the Clarke School explained that this School had a method of its own, a more philosophical method than the German system. He stated that before the Clarke School was organized, semi-mutes and the semi-deaf were thrust into schools for the deaf—"sign language schools." There was need for a school such as Clarke which used articulation for its *method*. It had been discovered through work at Clarke School that some congenitally deaf-mutes could talk better than semi-mutes after instruction, but he stated that tests must be made over a longer period of time before drawing a definite conclusion.

Isaac Lewis Peet presented his idea that while there are many cases of successful articulation, for the acquisition of subject matter it is a long and slow process.

Charles S. Perry, in a letter written to the Convention from Munich, Germany, offered his observation that the proficiency and intelligence seemed lower in German classes than in American classes. He advocated a middle course combining the two methods (4).

David Greenberger, at the Eighth Convention, in 1874, described fully the method of teaching articulation and

* See Chapter I on The History of the Convention, pp. 11-12, for the resolutions adopted at the Sixth Convention.

lipreading used at the Institution for the Improved Instruction of Deaf, New York. The method, a modification of the best German Method, consisted of teaching simple elementary sounds and having the pupils learn to read these from the lips and write them at the same time. The essence of this method was "to let the child *see* and *feel* the sounds of speech."* Vowel sounds were taught first, followed by a few simple consonants; combinations were then made of these formed into words. Emphasis was placed on connecting spoken language and thought, not parrot-like imitation of the articulate sounds employed in speech. The object of the method was to enable the pupils

. . . to use speech as the instrument of the soul's faculties of knowledge or volition—speech, . . .**

without "division of thought and distinction of words; . . . "***

Included in Mr. Greenberger's paper is a complete list of sounds and the manner in which they were presented and taught to the pupils.****

Dr. Alexander Graham Bell, at the same Convention, in 1874, gave a demonstration of Visible Speech as devised by his father, Melville Bell, and explained the diagrams. He told the members that at the Boston Day School it had been proven that deaf children of five years were not too young to understand the symbols. These are, according to Dr. Bell, physiological symbols enabling a representation of any imagined position of the vocal organs, which reveal the concealed mechanism of speech. Dr. Bell showed how deaf children can be taught to recognize and control the movements of the organs of speech concealed by direct observation (6).*****

Mr. Greenberger disagreed violently with Dr. Bell, claiming that more could be accomplished in one month without the symbols than in one year with the symbols.

* 8: 93.

** 8: 103.

*** *Ibid.*

**** See Appendix A following this Chapter for the complete list of sounds used at this school.

***** See (57) for a report on "A Visible Speech Educational Research Program" presented at the Thirty-third Convention, in 1947.

Dr. Bell's method, according to an article by Z. F. Westervelt, was used in the Clarke School at Northampton, the Boston Day School, the New York School, and the Illinois School (8).

Duncan McLellan, at the Eighth Convention, explained a method of articulation used by Duncan Anderson in which models of the organs of speech were constructed from plaster of paris. These models, showing the action of the organs of speech in forming consonants and vowels, were considered by Mr. McLellan a valuable aid in the teaching of speech (7).

Z. F. Westervelt, at the Ninth Convention, in 1878, discussed a statement made by Dr. Peet to the last Legislature concerning articulation. Dr. Peet had spoken to the effect that unless the method of articulation should produce

. . . a vocal utterance so clear that it shall not require, on the part of the hearer, an ear educated and attuned to his particular mode of enunciation, nor a mind quick to catch his meaning through the necessities of the connection, so natural that it shall not startle by its peculiarity, . . . so agreeable that it shall not excite the mirth of the unthinking nor the ridicule of the unfeeling . . .*

it is not feasible they should be taught articulation.

Mr. Westervelt took exception to this. He believed that all that should be required is that the pupils be able to communicate readily with friends at home and those associated with him in his work. He should be given that means of communication which will be most natural, most easily comprehended and least annoying to friends. Mr. Westervelt was in favor of using Bell's method and pointed out that the degree of success in every case depended on the adaptability of the teacher to the work. (8)

Following this paper many good arguments were presented on both sides of the question, citing instances of success and failure. The idea was held by many members that for the broadest and best results the two systems must complement each other. It was believed by many that while articulation was of great advantage to a considerable

* 8: 242-43.

class of deaf pupils, for the larger portion signs must be the chief means of advantage for their education. All of the members agreed that articulation instruction was still in an experimental stage.

At the Tenth Convention, in 1882, Emma Garrett presented a very inspiring paper with a fervent plea that the deaf-mutes of America might be taught to use their voices. She pointed out that even France, the birthplace of the sign system had recognized the superiority of the oral method at a recent convention. She gave evidences of the success of teaching by articulation in her classes. Miss Garrett criticized the so-called "combined" method in which classes were conducted in the language of signs and pupils were given thirty minutes daily drill in articulation. Her paper is more thoroughly discussed in Chapter XVI, *Methods of Instruction, D. Oral*.

No action was taken, however, until the Eleventh Convention, in 1886, when the resolutions of Dr. Gallaudet were unanimously adopted.* At this Convention, another resolution was also adopted looking to the formation of a section of the Convention of the American Instructors of the Deaf, for the promotion of articulation teaching. At the Twelfth Convention the oral teachers met together and selected an Executive Committee for the Oral Section of the Convention (14).

At the Eleventh Convention, Laura Richards, from Philadelphia, leader of a discussion on oral instruction, defined the method she used in teaching speech to beginners—breathing exercises, quality of voice, and the order in which elements should be presented, i.e., simple vowel sounds, simple consonants, the more difficult vowels and then difficult consonants. She explained that words were given in speech as soon as possible and that children were taught to write the words and read them from the lips as soon as they were learned in speech. The words mastered were kept on the slate for their use and new ones were added as learned. She pointed out that when a child wants to tell something, the teacher should attempt to understand it and write it on the slate, then have the children spell it on their fingers. Miss Richards made no use of Bell's symbols (10).

* See Chapter I, *History of the Convention*, pp. 15-16.

In the same discussion, Sister Mary Ann from Buffalo, New York, advocated the use of signs before teaching articulation. She did not use Bell's Symbols but began at once with syllables and words, leaving the teaching of elements until later (10). K. H. Fish from Maryland indicated that she used the translation of Bell's Visible Speech Chart, as it was used at Northampton (10).^{*} She believed that a knowledge of Bell's system was necessary to the teacher of articulation but not a knowledge of the Symbols. All three teachers, Miss Richards, Sister Mary Ann, and Miss Fish taught the diacritical markings of words (10). In a discussion following this one, teachers agreed that articulation classes must be small.

At the Twelfth Convention, David Greenberger, presented a paper dealing with the anatomical structure of the vocal organs, the physiology of the sounds of speech, and general principles of articulation teaching. The last section of his paper dealt with methods of correcting such faulty speech as stammering, high voice, and a nasal quality (11).

Florence C. McDowell, also at the Twelfth Convention, explained her method of teaching articulation to beginners, through imitation and drill on the elements. She stressed accuracy in the first years and mechanical drilling of voice on the elementary sounds for three to four months before connected language is given. At the end of the first year pupils should have 500 words and be able to use them in naming objects, in writing simple actions, and in answering and asking simple questions (12).

At the Twelfth Convention, Z. F. Westervelt from the Rochester School, announced to the members of the Convention that there was perfected at the Convention the organization of a society for the purpose of promoting the teaching of speech in all schools for the deaf throughout America.** He explained that although every school or nearly every school in the country was then teaching articulation, there were about 5,000 deaf children who did not receive instruction in speech. The purpose of this

^{*} See Appendix B following this Chapter for the chart mentioned here.

^{**} The society mentioned here is known as the American Association to Promote the Teaching of Speech to the Deaf.

association was to aid the schools which these pupils attend in giving speech to as large a proportion as possible.*

A. L. E. Crouter, at the Thirteenth Convention, in 1893, stated that 3,924 out of 7,940 pupils were receiving some form of articulation instruction at that time. That represented about fifty per cent of all pupils. Twenty per cent of all pupils were under pure oral instruction (14).

Edwin Stanley Thompson at the Fourteenth Convention, in 1895, discussed work on accent, emphasis, and the correct pronunciation of words, with advanced classes. He emphasized the reading of poetry in concert and reading aloud at sight as having a good effect on the everyday speech of pupils (15).

C. N. Haskins at the Fourteenth Convention, in 1895, presented a system of charts he had devised for articulation teaching, which consisted of an order for presenting the elements of speech. He had a theory of vowels, i.e., that the roof of the mouth is a sounding board and each sound depends on the particular point upon which the sound is directed or focalized.** There are nineteen vowel sounds and altogether 350 elements and combinations used in speaking the English language, according to his theory. He believed these charts furnished an inexhaustible mine of exercises in vocal gymnastics so complete that every possible combination of sounds in the English language could be mastered by their use (17).

M. L. Greer from Hartford, at the Fifteenth Convention, offered suggestions on the method of teaching a distinct "k" and "g" sound. Her system of teaching included 1. tongue gymnastics, 2. diagrams, 3. teaching by analogy with "p" and "t" (in the case of "k" and "g"), and 3. continuous drill (18).

Dr. Percival Hall, from Gallaudet College, explained to members of the Seventeenth Convention, that the only possible solution to teaching speech at Gallaudet was for the students to have individual instruction for short periods daily. In this way all students might have the opportunity to preserve and improve their powers of speech (19).

* This information is given at the closing session of the Twelfth Convention, pp. 314-15.

** See Appendix C. of this Chapter for an illustration of the vowel chart discussed here.

At the Eighteenth Convention, in 1908, Frances Eddy spoke on "How to Retain the Natural Voice." She held ideas which differed from many other authorities on speech who advocated the use of speech forms, diagrams and similar systems. Miss Eddy pointed out that one should *not* call the attention of the child to the organs of speech, the position of the tongue, the vibration of the chest, or the shape of the mouth, since this makes the child unduly conscious of the mechanics of speech. She believed that from the start every deaf child has a sweet natural voice which should be cultivated and retained. She suggested voice culture and breathing exercises of an attractive nature, making the difficult task of learning to talk seem like play. The important thing, according to Miss Eddy, is to get the child to talk for the purpose of telling something new (20).

Joliette E. Constantine, at the Eighteenth Convention, in 1908, explained her system of using music in developing the modulation of the voice. She placed words above the staff and placed notes on the staff in correct relationship to the words. Through a demonstration at the Twentieth Convention, Lena Herschheifer illustrated the advantage in teaching music to deaf children to improve the pitch, expression, and tone of their voices. It should be mentioned here that rhythm was discussed in papers presented at the Conventions as an aid in speech work from the Twentieth Convention.*

At the Nineteenth Convention, in 1911, the subject of Visible Speech was again brought to the foreground—this time by Caroline Yale of Clarke School. She emphasized the value of the symbols in the teaching of speech over and above the value of diagrams. Miss Yale explained that for a time they had abandoned the use of symbols but recently had again revived them and were thinking of giving them to the older children as well (24).

Dr. Harris Taylor, at the Twenty-first Convention described tests he used to measure the improvement of the speech of deaf children. Through this system he believed it possible to measure the failures of the teacher in speech work and improve the speech of the children (30).

* See Chapter XXIV on Rhythm.

Pattie Thomason, at the Twenty-first Convention, gave "Suggestions for Improving the Quality of the Voice." This improvement should begin before the voice begins, with preparatory training consisting of exercises to educate the touch to perceive sound as vibration. Loudness, pitch, and quality of the voice were taught through the use of the piano and other instruments. She believed that all preliminary work should be done with vowels rather than with words or syllables, beginning with the high tones and bringing the tones down gradually—1. oo, ee (high pitch, to develop nasal resonance), 2. a(r) (medium pitch, to develop resonance in the mouth cavity), 3. oo, o, aw (chest voice, to develop chest resonance). She suggested beginning in the third grade with scale work and establishing in the mind of the child the correct relationship of tones within the octave. This aids in developing inflection and pitch of the voice (31).

At the Twenty-second Convention, in 1920, Frank R. Wheeler, in his paper "Growth of American Schools for the Deaf," presented the following ten reasons why the Hartford Asylum rejected articulation, as given by the principal of the school in 1866 (33):

1. Too much time is lost in teaching sound, which is of no benefit in mental culture.
2. Under this system a large number of deaf-mutes must be left without instruction.
3. The intonations of the voice and the distortion of the countenance in teaching and practicing articulation are disagreeable.
4. Success in articulation teaching has come principally to pupils who retained their speech after becoming deaf.
5. The ability to converse in general society is not secured by this method of instruction.
6. More teachers are required, resulting in more expense.
7. Religious instruction must be deferred, and religious worship is almost impossible.
8. In teaching articulation signs are still indispensable.
9. Lip reading must be taught also.
10. The results of instruction by signs are beyond those attained by articulation.*

At the Twenty-fifth Convention, in 1927, Dr. G. Oscar Russell from Ohio State University, advanced a theory

* 22: 131.

of speech which he felt proved many noted speech teachers of the past wrong. He presented a series of slide—vowel cavities as they appear in Xrays, which showed both the old and the modern lingual diagrams inaccurate. He gave this as the reason for the difficulty in teaching pupils to pronounce vowels. Dr. Bell's system also failed to receive confirmation in the Xray pictures. The vowel, "ah" (a) (ar), Dr. Russell believed to be the easiest of all vowels to produce and he recommended concentrating on the series of vowels from "a(r)" to "oo" (u) in teaching speech to deaf children (34).

J. D. Wright, at the Twenty-seventh Convention, in 1937, recommended "Using Neglected Hearing Remnants in Speech Teaching." Through understanding spoken language, the child will come to learn speed, rhythm, and inflection of speech. Language given into the ear and the use of electrical hearing aids was recommended for pupils with 25% or more hearing in either ear (40).

Dr. Clarence V. Hudgins, of the Clarke Research Department, at the Thirtieth Convention, discussed "Voice Production and Breath Control in the Speech of the Deaf." These two aspects of speech, he stated, form a foundation upon which the other details of the speech process are to be built. He placed emphasis on speech breathing exercises as necessary preliminaries for good speech. Along with these exercises the child must be taught the proper control of the laryngeal muscles which adjust the vocal folds to the breath pressure in the production of voice. Dr. Hudgins discussed the vocal folds in normal speech, voice production in the speech of the deaf, breath control in normal speech, breath control in the speech of the deaf, what can be done to improve the voices and speech-breathing of deaf children, and speech-breathing and voice exercises (44).

Dr. Elizabeth McDowell, from Columbia University, emphasized ease and precision as the prime objectives of speech. She warned against aiming at overprecision in teaching articulation since it spoils the quality of tone. Dr. McDowell believed that the practice of feeling throat vibrations to gain more accurate consonants was responsible for developing hoarse voices. Melody, phrasing,

and rhythm in speech patterns are too often sacrificed in order to get clear cut sounds which are less likely to give the speaker intelligibility. The serial order of emphasis in the phonetic processes of speech should be phrasing, timing, stress, melody, timbre, and accuracy, not the reverse (45).

Doris E. Wood, of the Lexington School, at the Thirty-first Convention, in 1939, explained their "Tactile-visual-auditory-complete word" approach to speech and speech reading with beginners. Using the Reger O'Connor hearing aid, the child places both hands on the speaker's face; in this way he hears, sees, and feels at the same time. This method exposes the child to perfect speech patterns important in building a foundation for speech. Only whole words are given, not elements or syllables. A long period of conditioning is provided wherein children hear simple words before any attempt is made to have them produce these in speech. They begin, then, to say them naturally. The children are exposed to language every minute of the day (46) (49).

William L. Fair, at the Thirty-second Convention, in 1941, stressed that children must thoroughly understand every word they speak. Speech must be based on language, not be mere mechanical articulation and imitation of the speech of the teacher. Speech, as he expressed it, should be a means to an end. Children should gain a fair knowledge of subject matter, be able to use a normal language, know what to do under every normal condition, have intelligible speech, and be of good character. None of these singly can be the ultimate goal; they are all means to an end (48).

Mary E. Numbers of the Clarke School advocated the teaching of syllables in which consonants and vowels are associated in the relationship in which they appear in normal speech, rather than teaching separate elements (50).

At the Thirty-second Convention, Sophia K. Alcorn, discussed the development of speech by her method—the Tadoma Method. The basis of speech work in this system is vibration. The Tadoma Method rose out of her successful experience in using it with deaf-blind children.*

* The Tadoma Method is named for two deaf-blind pupils of Miss Alcorn—Tad (Winthrop) Chapman and Oma Simpson.

Briefly, it consisted of having the deaf child close his eyes and place his hands on the face of the speaker. Preschool children received seven to eight vibration periods a day, some of them for more than a year before speech work is begun. Vowels, consonants, and words are given, but no combinations. The result should be more intelligible speech, more fluency, better inflection, and more voluntary language (52) (35).

Ethel M. Hilliard, also at the Thirty-second Convention, placed great emphasis on speech readiness. She was opposed to prolonged babbling exercises and the prevalent idea that the order for teaching deaf children must be lip reading, speech, and reading. Mental development should not be held back on account of speech. First the teacher must provide something to talk about. She favored giving general exercises in basic rhythms for accent and emphasis, rather than much drilling on individual words (56).

Dr. Elwood A. Stevenson, at the Thirty-third Convention, in his paper "Time to Take Inventory" warned of the danger in devoting too much time to speech at the expense of reading and language. He emphasized that failures in speech must be acknowledged before it is too late (58).

Marline Parish, at the Thirty-third Convention, stressed the cultivation of a normal rhythmic speech pattern through a correlation of rhythm, acoustic training, and speech (59).

Bessie L. Pugh presented the idea that the speech of a congenitally deaf child should be considered as another dialect. She stressed that the deaf be encouraged to use their speech at every opportunity even though it does not sound entirely natural (62).

Gladys Jayne encouraged the employment of physical interpretations or rhythmic plays that exactly portray the speech accent pattern for the purpose of developing the rhythmic accent in speech (63).

Dr. Sherman K. Smith, in his paper, "New Methods in Oralism," stressed that the road to new methods for oralism lies in the improvement of phonation (63).

It was pointed out by Julie McDermott that the most important thing a child gets his first year in school is a

natural voice. Accent must be started when the first element is taught; this is obtained by practice in holding the element for different lengths of time (65).

It is appropriate that this Chapter on Speech be concluded with the ideas expressed by Boyd E. Nelson, at the Thirty-third Convention. Although science has recently made unbelievable strides in the realm of sound in the last decade, there has been no noticeable overall improvement in the intelligibility of the speech of the deaf child. He stressed as a remedy that every teacher of the deaf be more speech conscious. Teachers must be teachers of the total child instead of merely teachers of subject matter (66).

It is readily noted that the subject of articulation and speech teaching has from its beginning been a source of controversy among teachers and administrators in the education of the deaf. Wide differences of opinion have been held by educators from the earliest period as to *how much* speech should be taught the deaf and even whether or not *any* speech should be taught at all. This controversy to a great extent still exists today. There are schools in which speech is the very center of the curriculum and other schools where it holds a comparatively small place in the curriculum. It is difficult, after reading the past history on this subject, to estimate to what degree speech will be used in the curriculums of the future.

APPENDIX: SPEECH

A. COMPLETE LIST OF SOUNDS

as used by David Greenberger, Principal of the Institution
for the Improved Instruction of Deaf Mutes, N. Y.

a, e, i, o, u,

ah, aw, oo, ou, oi, ir—er, ai

p—b, t—d, k—g, f—v, wh—w, s—z

th, sh—zh, ch—j, l, r, y, m, n, ng*

* 8: 94.

B. THE TRANSLATION OF PROFESSOR BELL'S
VISIBLE SPEECH CHART
as it was used in Northampton*

			a	oo	
p	s	ē	ar	ōō	
t	sh	ŷ	ah		
k	<u>sh</u>	ā	ŭ.	ō	
b	l	ě	er	au	
d	<u>l</u>	ǎ	ir	or	
q	r	ī	ur	o	
			ou	oe	
m	<u>r</u>		ow	oy	ū
n	wh				
			x = ks		nk = } ngk
ng	ch				nc = }
f	j				c = } k
			qu = kwh		
v					
th					pf = f
<u>th</u>					

C. PHONETIC COMBINATIONS (VOWELS)**
as used by C. N. Haskins of the
Chicago Day-Schools, 1895

Beginning at the point of the teeth and going gradually backward, the vowel sounds are made in the following order:—

Ē, Ī, Ě, Â, Ů, Ă, Ä, Ö, Ä, Ȧ, Ê, OÖ, Ō, ŌŌ,

making fourteen simple vowel sounds.

Ā, Ī, Ū, OU and OY,

are compound vowels, or diphthongs, combinations of the simple vowels. Thus,

$\bar{A} = \bar{I}\bar{E}$, $\bar{I} = \bar{A}E$, $\bar{U} = \bar{E}\bar{O}\bar{O}$, $OU = \bar{A}\bar{O}\bar{O}$ and $OY = \bar{A}\bar{E}$

This makes nineteen vowel sounds in all.

* 11: 211.

** 14: 246.

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CHAPTER XXX

SPEECHREADING

In the earliest papers speechreading or lipreading was discussed mainly in connection with speech or articulation.† Most of the early controversy in regard to the teaching of articulation in the schools applies to lipreading as well. Papers concerning this controversy may be found in Chapter XXIX on Speech. David Greenberger, at the Eighth Convention, in 1874, stated that articulation, lipreading, and writing should be taught simultaneously (2).

In 1882, Amos G. Draper, in speaking on "The Preparation of Advanced Pupils for College" told members of the Tenth Convention that owing to want of time, lipreading could not be formally taught at Gallaudet College, although there were opportunities for practicing this art with hearing persons in and about school. He explained that lipreading cannot satisfy the social needs of the deaf students, since they do not enjoy using it among themselves. Students may improve in articulation, but very few do in lipreading. He stated,

† See early papers in the Bibliography on Speech, Chapter XXIX.

. . . lip-reading must be more or less slow, labored, tentative, uncertain; and where there is a constant demand for patience on the part of both speaker and seer, there can be, in general, no such thing as enjoyment.*

In conclusion, Mr. Draper made clear that he did not wish to be misunderstood. He esteemed this art so highly, that he wished it

. . . taught to all proper subjects, and its importance impressed upon them when, if ever, it can be done effectually—in the plastic years of youth.† (3)

In a discussion following this paper, E. A. Fay mentioned that pupils come to College unprepared for speech-reading work. Reading the lips should be taught in the institutions before pupils become too old to learn it readily. He stated that when pupils would be prepared for teaching in this method, it would be used in the College.

In a discussion at the Eleventh Convention, in 1886, Miss Fish suggested that children read words from the lips before they learn to speak well. She explained that her class could write words on the slate from the lips, as many as 100 in a half-hour. Elements were first learned, then syllables and words. Other members entering the discussion brought out that the congenitally deaf make the best lip readers (4).

Nellie J. Schreck, at the Eighteenth Convention, in 1908, explained the manner in which she built up a speech-reading vocabulary with kindergarten children by using objects attractive to them. Two to three new pictures a week were added to their lip reading chart (6).

Nora Virginia Long, at the same Convention, expressed her objective in developing the eyes of deaf children so that eventually they might have a double-sight sense to take the place of hearing. In speechreading the eye power is to be increased by developing attention, concentration, quick perception, discrimination, and memory. She believed that speechreading exercises should be made so attractive to children that their attention could be readily secured and held throughout the period (7).

* 10: 115.

† 10: 115.

A. L. E. Crouter, at the Nineteenth Convention, expressed an idea similar to that of Miss Long. He stated that pupils should be trained to use their eyes as normal children use their ears, so that they might gain the power of lipreading in the same unconscious way as a normal child gains speech and language. He firmly believed that the corner stone of the oral method is lipreading rather than articulation; his fundamental principle was that all language should be given to the deaf child through speech (8).

At a "Conference on Lip Reading as a Means of Communication in Teaching," led by T. V. Archer, in 1911, many advantages of lipreading were presented. Attention, the first requisite of mental growth is required in lipreading. The child receives English through speechreading and more meaning is conveyed through the expression of the features than in finger spelling. Members argued pro and con concerning the possibility of giving moral instruction through lipreading at chapel exercises. Teachers representing the oral schools maintained that it had been tested and proven that pupils received more benefit from orally conducted chapel services than from services conducted in the language of signs. Dr. Crouter defended this point of view (9), but the majority of the members were of the opposite opinion (6).

Martha Bruhn, at the Twenty-first Convention, in 1917, explained to the members the Muller-Walle Method of lipreading. In 1912, the Mt. Airy School and the Clarke School used this method; in five years twenty-five other schools were making use of it. She informed her audience that the method had a three-fold use: 1. it is of benefit to the adult deaf, 2. it can be taught to the deaf child, and 3. it can be taught to deaf persons who are training to be lipreading teachers. The method consists of a graded course, designed to be given to hard of hearing persons. The lessons are presented in order of difficulty, beginning with vowels, then consonants, with the main stress on syllables. In each subsequent lesson, one or more sounds are taught and practiced with syllables already learned. Sentence practice is given with the lessons at first; informal conversation lessons and story developments

follow. Emphasis is placed on developing the eye, insight, rhythm, concentration, definite purposefulness, the vision of a mind reader, and the ability to guess correctly (10).

Sarah E. Lewis, at the Twenty-seventh Convention, in 1931, emphasized that speechreading should keep pace with reading in the lower grades. Drill should be given on new words marked for pronunciation before the reading lesson is given (11).

The method of teaching speechreading to the deaf by motion picture photography had its inception in the mind of Dr. Oscar G. Russell of Ohio State University. Marie K. Mason collaborated with Dr. Russell in doing the actual work of teaching speech reading (12).

Doris E. Wood explained to the members of the Thirty-first Convention, in 1939, how the "Tactile-visual-auditory" approach as practiced at the Lexington School for the Deaf has resulted in a wider vocabulary range both in speech and speechreading than if teaching were confined to a single approach (13). At the same Convention, Anne Gordon stressed the idea of lipreading readiness, limiting lipreading to the reading the child has had, especially in the beginning years. She was adverse to the idea of building up a large vocabulary of nouns, verbs, and other parts of speech, but favored, rather, building up a language concept and developing a general lipreading ability. Lipreading should be a class exercise, not so much individual work. She placed emphasis on *learning to lipread* instead of on *lipreading* itself. In the learning process, according to Miss Gordon, silent reading comes first, then lipreading. Children first learn to identify objects which the teacher names in phrases; this is followed by writing phrases and sentences from dictation. A carry over is made into new situations and conversational lipreading which keeps the children alert and interested. She stressed that this system facilitates the teaching of speech, since the class is already familiar with the words seen on the lips. Miss Gordon disagreed with an article in the January 20, 1939 issue of the *Convention Bulletin* written by Marjorie B. Miller of North Dakota, who stressed teaching in the following order: reading, writing, speech, and lipreading. All lipreading, according to Miss Gordon, should not be

delayed until after written language is well established (14).

The *Proceedings* are not rich in information concerning the subject of speechreading. But for a few instances, papers seldom occur, except in connection with speech, preschool, and methods of instruction. The articles appearing in this Bibliography were singled out because they seemed to give more information regarding this topic than do most of the papers.

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CHAPTER XXXI

STATISTICS

The subject of statistics is generally a dull but necessary one. There has not been a great deal of pure statistical matter given at the Conventions. However, as might be expected, information of a statistical nature had been presented for almost every subject.

Statistical information about the deaf was largely taken

from the census in the early years. For this reason, there was considerable discussion about census reports. Dr. H. P. Peet (2), reported on findings of the New York State Census of 1853. Wines (3) was connected with the 1880 census and made a report about it to the Tenth Convention. Fay (5) and Bell (4) (7) reported to several Conventions on data collected but not published by the 1890 census committee. The last information of this type reported to the Convention was a paper by Lange (12) to the Seventeenth Convention taken from the census report of 1900.

Statistics regarding the work of Gallaudet College were presented at several conventions. Dr. Hall, in a statistical study, in 1901, showed reasons for success or failure in the College (11); and at the Twelfth Convention, he gave a survey of 350 graduates as to occupations and success (16). Day (15) discussed the relationship of the College to the congenitally deaf at the Nineteenth Convention.

Fusfeld (19) and Kellog (20) reported at the Twenty-fourth and Twenty-fifth Conventions, respectively, the progress and accomplishments of the National Research Council's Survey of Schools for the Deaf.

Miscellaneous but highly important statistical data were given by different persons at the various Conventions. Crouter (6), in 1874, gave the statistics on articulation work and traced its rapid growth and development. Wright (8) made a statistical study of the deaf-blind in which he included all of the deaf-blind persons known at that time and presented it to the Fourteenth Convention. Currier (10) at the Sixteenth and Hall (14) at the Eighteenth Conventions, discussed the statistical aspect of aural work done at the New York and Columbia Institutions, respectively.

Reports of various vocational studies involving statistical data were given by Robinson (13), Amateau (17), and Booth (18).

Mrs. Poore (21), at a special Conference meeting of the Thirtieth Convention, in 1937, gave a committee report on expenditure of schools. This report included range of salaries for various officers and teachers, per capita costs, and other salaries and costs. It was decided that this information was valuable as reference material.

Information of a statistical nature was included in other papers throughout the Conventions. Papers on tests and research contain considerable material of this type.

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CHAPTER XXXII

TEACHERS

The Chapter on Teachers has been divided into three sections for the sake of convenience. The first section deals with teachers in general, their qualities and characteristics; the second section takes up the papers on deaf teachers; in the third part, teacher training is discussed.

In the early papers the character of the teacher was particularly emphasized. This was due in large part to the emphasis on religious training. H. P. Peet (1), Weed (3), and Talbot (4) discussed this aspect of the teachers at the Third and Fifth Conventions. At the Eighth Con-

vention, Valentine (9) said that a teacher should have a good physical condition, a good liberal education, superior mental ability, and be trained in the moral and religious aspects. Widd (11) said that the teacher should be a protector, spiritual advisor, tutor, and friend to the deaf.

Francis (2), in 1856, stated that many educators entered this field because it offered social and mental development. He said that greater skill, resourcefulness, and intellect were needed to teach the deaf than were needed to teach the hearing. H. P. Peet (8) almost fifteen years later bemoaned the shortage of good teachers. He said that in past times teachers were at home in the language of signs and were gifted in instruction but that today teachers are not well prepared and that many of them are mediocre. The causes for the shortage of good teachers, adept in the language of signs, according to his paper were 1. lack of enthusiasm and the novelty of articulation, 2. changed values resulting from the Civil War, with less money for teaching as compared with other fields.

An interesting paper written by Miss Trask (7) was presented at the Sixth Convention. She gave the advantages of having women as teachers of the deaf. She said that women have a place in the profession just as much as do deaf-mutes and men. Another woman teacher, Miss Sheridan (12) at the Ninth Convention, criticized much of the work of educating the deaf. She said that new teachers should not be allowed to experiment on the children. She also made many suggestions which have become realities in recent years such as a teacher training program, guidance, kindergarten, and the cottage system.

E. A. Fay reported to the Eleventh Convention the results of a survey he had completed on the mortality of teachers of the deaf. He found that the death rate was one-half that of other occupations, and attributed this to freedom from hazards, comfortable living, good food, and living temperate, moral, and domestic lives. He also found that more women than men gave up the work because of ill health (chiefly nervous prostration and consumption). Also according to his findings, principals and superintendents had a death rate higher than the general population which ranked with the death rate of dangerous occupations.

Papers were presented at various Conventions dealing with suggestions for teacher improvement. Jenkins (18), at the Twelfth Convention, suggested that adequate salaries, tenure of office, leisure time to study, and an adequate supply of books for self-improvement would aid in raising the standards of teachers. Self-improvement and study by the teachers had been discussed prior to this at the Ninth Convention by Carroll (14). Jenkins told the Seventeenth Convention some of the things he had learned in the class room and also suggested requirements for the ideal teacher. Winnie (29), in 1917, said that teachers must observe professional ethics and should exchange their views on the education of the deaf rather than guaranteeing cures based upon secret methods of teaching.

The development of character and other traits by the example of the teacher was a popular subject at the Conventions. West (19) and Booth (20), at the Twelfth Convention, discussed the handling of discipline problems and developing lessons for the deaf, respectively. Brown (21), at the Fifteenth Convention, suggested that teachers do nothing for the pupils that they could do themselves. He said that this would develop confidence and self-reliance. At the same Convention, Smith (22) said that pupils unconsciously follow the example of their teachers and that teachers should command the respect and admiration of the pupils. Swiler (23), Forrester (25), Balis (26), and Miss Peet (27) also discussed character development and the teachers, from various points of view, at several conventions.

Gilbert (29), presented to the Twenty-fourth Convention, a plan for rating teachers. This rating was based upon 1. professional preparation and interest, 2. daily preparation, 3. daily results, 4. general usefulness, and 5. loyalty. Long (30), at the Thirtieth Convention, discussed a plan for certification which would place teachers in different classes according to education, training, and satisfying experience. Kirkley (34) emphasized scholarship, character, and social ability as attributes of a good teacher.

Miss Groht (32), at the Thirty-first Convention, and Miss Barron (33), at the Thirty-second, discussed the

supervising teacher. Miss Groht listed the following as duties of the supervising teacher: 1. placing the right teacher in the right class, 2. encouraging new ideas and suggestions, 3. guiding new teachers, 4. keeping abreast of educational thought, and 5. coordinating departments.

Deaf Teachers. The deaf teacher has been discussed from numerous viewpoints at the Conventions and often the subject has been controversial. Carlin (35) touched off a heated discussion at the Fifth Convention by maintaining that deaf instructors should receive compensation equal to that of hearing teachers. In the discussion, arguments for and against equality of compensation were presented. I. L. Peet (36), thirty-five years later, said that deaf teachers were of great value to the schools and that they should receive equal compensation for equal work. Dobyns (37), at the same Convention (Thirteenth), called attention to traits and faults which kept many of the deaf from becoming excellent instructors. He said that deaf teachers as a rule dealt with personalities, liked scandal and gossip, that they confided too much in their pupils and that they were not loyal to the rules or to the institution. Veditz (38), also at the Thirteenth Convention, came to the defense of the deaf teachers. He said to the pure oralists who were opposed to deaf teachers,

. . . if the method cannot educate and train its pupils to such a degree of efficiency in speech and speech-reading and other attainments that they can become in their turn teachers, there must be a discrepancy between the achievements claimed by the method and its practical results.*

He condemned the habit of criticizing all the deaf because of certain individual faults. In his words,

. . . there are none in the profession who recognize more fully the responsibilities devolving upon them, none who are more zealous in the cause, none who are doing more faithful work, none who are accomplishing better results, and none who are more truly popular and beloved by the pupils than the deaf teachers.†

Forty years later, at the Twenty-eighth Convention,

* 13: 81.

† 13: 83.

Harris (39) also paid tribute to the deaf teachers. He spoke of the famous deaf teachers, i. e., Clerc, Hotchkiss, Draper, and d'Estrella. Some of the contributions to the education of the deaf, according to Harris, were as follows: 1. compilation of a book of idiomatic expressions for use in the schools, 2. handbooks of manners and morals, 3. many profusely illustrated books, 4. a book of signs, and 5. work by Ballard and d'Estrella with James to develop psychology of thought without articulate expression. He also listed many reasons why the deaf are especially adapted as teachers of the deaf.

At the next Convention, Elstad (40) stressed the need for normal training for deaf teachers. He stated that there were two hundred deaf teachers in academic departments and that forty-one per cent of the vocational teachers were deaf. These teachers he thought should be given an opportunity for professional advancement. Fusfeld (41) and Moore (4) discussed this problem at the Thirty-second Convention. Fusfeld gave examples of deaf persons who were working for advanced degrees. He mentioned Byron B. Burnes, Kelly H. Stevens, Boyce R. Williams, James T. Flood, Francis C. Higgins, and Bernard Teitlbaum. He also explained that graduates of Gallaudet College were eligible for "B" Conference certificates. Moore suggested summer schools, night schools, conventions, and university courses, as means of advancement for the deaf. William J. McClure (43), at the Thirty-third Convention, said that about twenty per cent of the teachers of the deaf were themselves deaf. He suggested that deaf teachers attend university classes in groups with an interpreter or take extension courses in their schools by special arrangement. He also suggested that correspondence courses might be a profitable means of professional growth for the deaf.

As the requirements for state certification become more rigid and as the deaf themselves feel the need for graduate work, the subject of professional advancement for deaf teachers will be one of increasing importance.

Teacher Training. The very earliest training for teaching the deaf was learning the language of signs. Many early papers on various subjects referred to the difficulties

encountered in this special training. Keep (44), at the Fourth Convention, discussed these difficulties in some detail. Noyes (46) and Gillespie (47), at the Thirteenth Convention, discussed the value of different organizations such as Conventions, conferences, and summer schools as means of training teachers. Noyes (46) said that summer schools had proven successful for public school teachers and that they should be tried with teachers of the deaf. Gillespie (47) stressed the need for a better and more permanent organization in the Convention and Conference.

Mrs. Anderson (48), at the Eighteenth Convention, presented a list of courses for teachers in training. In this list she included the history of education, a list of texts to be read, psychology, and observation of regular classes. At the next Convention, several conferences were held regarding the training of oral and industrial teachers (49) (50) (51). Special courses suggested in these conferences were history of the education of the deaf, knowledge of signs and the manual alphabet, methods, speech and speechreading, visible speech, moral and religious training, and industrial training.

Steed (53) told the Twentieth Convention that there should be standard requirements for candidates for teacher training. He explained his plan of grading based upon examinations, evaluation of practice teaching, and oral examinations.

John Dewey (54), addressing the Twenty-first Convention, said that educators of special classes such as the deaf were pioneers and leaders in educational theory. He also presented his ideas on teacher training. Crouter (55) and Winnie (56) also discussed teacher training at this Convention. Crouter said that many different programs were offered by different training schools. He presented an outline of a three year course of teacher training which he considered ideal.

The training course offered by Gallaudet College was discussed on several occasions. Miss Jameson (57), in 1920, told of the requirements for the degree of Bachelor of Pedagogy offered by Gallaudet College to their normal students. Miss Gaarder (61) outlined a broad program for teachers in training who had college degrees. Harris

Taylor, in a discussion following this paper, said that there was danger that individuality and resourcefulness would be stifled by training that was too closely directed.

Mrs. Anderson (58), at the Twenty-second Convention, outlined the training program at the New Jersey School. Haycock (63), at the next Convention, told of teacher training as conducted in England. He said that the following courses were required of the teachers in training: principles of education, history of modern education, methods of teaching, the development of language, speech training, school hygiene, physical training, handwork, blackboard drawing, anatomy and physiology, and causes and conditions of deafness.

The question of conducting a normal class in connection with regular school work was discussed at the Twenty-fifth Convention by Numbers (64). He described some advantages and more disadvantages of this system. Wolf (73) discussed in-service training of teachers at the Thirty-first Convention.

Frampton (71) criticized some items in the usual teacher training course. He suggested that teachers take more cultural courses rather than methods courses to satisfy requirements. He also showed that large recruitment from other teaching fields could possibly lead to supply and demand problems in the profession. He said that older teachers should be given the opportunity to meet new requirements and to get new degrees.

Reiter (65) and Norris (75) showed concern over the lack of training of industrial teachers. Reiter said in 1929 that most industrial teachers were tradesmen unfitted for the job of teaching. They should be teachers first and tradesmen second. Norris, in 1941, pointed out that there was no place where industrial teachers could receive training.

Hall (66), West (67), and Cohn (73) discussed various trends in teacher training at various Conventions. Elstad (70), at the Twenty-ninth Convention, pointed out the difficulty experienced by deaf teachers in receiving training. Casey (76) and Schunhoff (77), at the Thirty-third Convention discussed the supervising and orientating of new teachers. Supervision of teachers had been discussed at

previous Conventions by Coburn (68), Jones (69), and Chatwin (74).

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CHAPTER XXXIII

TESTS AND RESEARCH

The use of standard tests in our schools is of comparatively modern origin. Some of the earliest work in test and measurement fields was done with the deaf. The first papers on this subject given at the Convention were reports of the National Research Council's Survey of Schools for the Deaf conducted by Day, Fufeld, and Pintner.

The work of the National Research Council was reported to the Twenty-fourth, Twenty-fifth and Twenty-sixth Conventions respectively by Fufeld, Kellog, and Day. Fufeld (3) explained the purposes of the survey as follows: to find out by means of tests 1. what the deaf accomplish in school, 2. the average amount of residual hearing in

deaf children, and 3. an evaluation of speech work. Data was also gathered on courses of study, school plants, training of teachers, salaries, pensions, management, finances, custodial care and extracurricular activities. He said that the schools were surveyed as to residence, instruction, location, population, size, support and facilities. The findings of this survey were to be available to all with no conclusions drawn from the data.

Kellog (4), at the next Convention, told how the study was financed and organized. He explained the divisions of the survey and outlined the results of the first part of the survey which was published serially in seven parts in the *American Annals of the Deaf*.

Day (6) reported to the Twenty-sixth Convention some of the work with the deaf done by the National Research Council. He recommended continued research on the following subjects: 1. hereditary deafness, 2. hearing tests, 3. hearing aids, 4. comparison of physical and mental make-up of hearing and deaf children, 5. personality, 6. progressive deafness, and other studies.

At the same Convention, Patterson (5) reported some of the results of tests conducted by Pintner and himself. He raised questions on classification of pupils, capacities of the deaf, provisions for the exceptional deaf child and visual education. He also pointed out that test results of speech intelligibility and lip-reading were so disappointing as to raise serious questions as to whether the progress made in these subjects warrants the time and energy spent in acquiring them.

Somewhat earlier than these reports two papers were given at the Convention on the subject of school examinations. These early papers given at the Eleventh and Twelfth Conventions respectively by Grady (1) and Clark (2), explained how examinations should be conducted in the schools.

Dr. Hall (7) gave a summary of the results of achievement tests given at Gallaudet College to members of the Twenty-sixth Convention. He concluded from the results of these tests given to freshmen and preparatory students, that deaf students can do high school work in the state schools and that the best students can do real college work.

He also noted that the greatest advancement is made after reaching college. He pointed out that reasoning is the greatest difficulty for the deaf and said that the college entrance requirements should include achievement tests, as these are one of the best means of predicting probable success or failure in college.

At the Twenty-seventh Convention, Abernathy (8) presented a paper on psychological tests, in which he stressed the point that test materials from the public schools could be used in schools for the deaf. He warned, however, that the language factor must be considered when tests are given. He said non-language tests could be given but that there was some doubt that these were true tests of intelligence. Nilson (9), in discussing this paper, emphasized the role that tests and measurements would play in the future education of the deaf. He also listed tests that could be used to good advantage with the deaf.

Rachel Dawes Davies (10) gave an excellent report to the twenty-eighth Convention of her study of vocabulary and directions of standardized tests. She recommended from her findings that the deaf be given remedial measures to overcome the difficulties of language and directions in these tests, and that further studies should be made of the reading skills of deaf pupils.

Monroe (11), at the Twenty-ninth Convention, cautioned teachers to be careful in their interpretations of test results. He also pointed out that although objectivity in scoring is desired, an objective test is not necessarily a good test. He said that the merit of a test is dependent upon the situation in which it is used.

Schick (12) stressed the choice of tests suitable for the deaf at the same Convention. She suggested that a non-verbal, individual test should be administered by someone familiar with the deaf. She said that behavior problems and motor coordination must also be considered as well as the usual factors in the test. She suggested annual retests as a means of getting adequate measures.

The results of standard tests given at Gallaudet College were reported to the Twenty-ninth Convention by I. S. Fusfeld (13). The wide range of grades on these tests indicated to him that the standards of graduation in

different schools varied greatly, that many misfits were getting into college, and that there was a need for a revision of the college entrance examination.

At the Thirtieth Convention, Dr. Heider (14) reported on the research being done at Clarke School. Motion pictures were used as a basis for lip-reading tests. The non-language tests listed by him as being of the greatest value were Goodenough Draw A Man Test, Kohs Cube Test, Kent-Shakow Form Board, Randall's Island Performance Series, and the Pintner Non-language Test.

Pintner (15) discussed testing at the same Convention. He spoke about recent studies in the fields of general adjustment, social competence, etiquette, fear, wishes, personality traits, special abilities, and intelligence. He suggested that every school have a psychologist for testing and guidance.

Taylor (16), in a report on field workers to the Thirtieth Convention, said that according to his survey many field workers conducted audiometric tests as part of their duties. Other duties assigned to field workers according to this study were home investigations, preschool advice to parents, follow up of pupils, counseling, placement, advising county officials, publicity, and adult deaf welfare.

Connery (17), reported on reading tests given to deaf children. She told the members of the Thirty-first Convention that a remedial reading program for the deaf produced the following results: 1. improvement in reading and stimulation of the desire to read, 2. indicated that the deaf need both regular reading and remedial work, 3. the deaf can approximate the grade levels of hearing children if reading is introduced earlier and, 4. the use of visual aids can overcome the lack of auditory memory.

At the same Convention, Stelle (18) explained the speech intelligibility test used in the Illinois School for the Deaf. The pupils were scored by auditors who were strangers; the average score was taken. The results of this test given in November and again in May showed improvement of 3.8 in that period on a hundred point scale. The average intelligibility in May was 65.3. He said that the school planned to test the pupils twice each year, before and after summer vacation, to see what trends were indicated.

Olga Bridgemen (99) reported to the Thirty-first Convention the results of a study of mental ability of deaf children. Among her findings were the following: social and emotional difficulties in addition to deafness are serious handicaps, 2. deaf children from inferior homes usually do poorly in schoolwork, deafness due to brain disease tends to produce educational problems even if the intelligence is not impaired, 4. desirable personality traits are necessary for successful education of the deaf, and 5. continuous attendance in the same school from an early age is important.

A new performance scale for children up to ten years of age was explained by Kiskey (20) at the Thirty-second Convention. The eleven parts of this test were as follows: 1. memory for colored objects, 2. bead stringing, 3. pictorial associations, 4. block building, 5. memory for digits, 6. completion of drawings, 7. pictorial identification, 8. paper folding, 9. visual attention span, 10. puzzle blocks and 11. picture analogies. He said that the deaf should be compared with other deaf pupils of the same age and grade rather than hearing children.

Brill presented two papers on tests to the Thirty-second Convention. In the first (21) he emphasized that the deaf are tested only on concrete intelligence and that abstract intelligence requires language. He contended that because of this there could not be very great correlation between nonlanguage tests and academic progress. He said non-language tests should be used to understand the deaf better. He suggested that the deaf be taught how to take standard tests. In his second paper (23) he gave a brief history of intelligence testing of the deaf and reported some of the latest results of these tests. He said that test results have consistently shown the deaf to be three to four years retarded as compared with hearing children of the same age. He also said that parallel forms of the same tests are not valid for the deaf and that they must be given the same test.

Craig (22) told the members of the Thirty-second Convention that although test scores should not be used to mold the curriculum, they are a valuable aid in administration. He said that test scores are important in guidance and as a

means of indicating where weaknesses lie and where improvement is needed.

Tests and measurements are becoming more important than ever in the field of education of the deaf. Tests are being used as a basis for classification, for guidance, and as part of the entrance examinations of Gallaudet College. Continuous research in all fields is predicted because of the increase in teaching centers and new interest in the deaf by additional colleges and universities.

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CHAPTER XXXIV

TEXTBOOKS

The language difficulty of the deaf has led to considerable discussion about textbooks for the deaf. The chief issue seems to be whether the deaf need special textbooks. Brown (1), at the Eighth Convention, said there were very few textbooks suitable for use with the deaf at that time. The most suitable were those written especially for the deaf containing idioms and common conversational phrases.

At the Thirteenth Convention several speakers (2) (3) agreed that textbooks should be used chiefly by the teacher as a guide and that the pupils should not use them until they have a well developed background of language. The pupils should make their own textbooks in the early grades according to these speakers.

Clarke (4) told the Convention in 1901 of the need for special textbooks and the disadvantages of usual textbooks. He said that regular textbooks contained too much or too little for the deaf, that the language was too difficult, or that they were unsuitable in style or arrangement. He attributed the lack of special textbooks to insufficient time on the part of the teachers, differences of opinion as to what was needed, the limited market, and the cost of publication.

An excellent article, giving all the books written for and about the deaf in the first hundred years of their education in America, is included in a paper by Jones (5) delivered to the Twenty-first Convention which celebrated the centennial of the founding of the Hartford School. He gives recognition to those who had rendered the labor of love in the preparation of these books. The list includes over fifty special books written for and used by the deaf in the early history of their education in this country.

With the increase in quantity and quality of modern textbooks and the movement to give the deaf the same materials as hearing children, the question of special textbooks has not been discussed in papers before the

convention. Since most of the problems involved are those of reading and language, a further discussion may be found under those headings as well as under subject matter fields.

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CHAPTER XXXV

VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

More than 180 papers have been delivered at the Conventions on this subject. These papers discussed all phases of vocational education from pre-vocations in the primary grades to job placement and vocational rehabilitation after leaving school. The vast scope and the amount of material precludes any detailed discussion of the subject. A brief idea of what has been presented and a few of the developments over the years are all that will be attempted.

Early papers on trades. John Carlin (1), a noted deaf artist, suggested at the Third Convention that the deaf should start school earlier and after graduation go into apprenticeship. He objected to the system of trades teaching at that time (1853) because the deaf were taught only one phase of a trade. In addition, he said that the trades—shoemaking, cabinet-making, tailoring, and book-binding were not good trades since, in these, the deaf had to compete with cheap foreign labor. Stone (3) and Palmer (4), at the Fifth and Sixth Conventions respectively, emphasized the fact that most deaf boys could learn a trade as well as a person who had hearing. They were both opposed to the idea that the trade should pay its way or make a profit in order to be retained in the curriculum. This point is brought up many times in the Conventions.

Criticism of early trades teaching. Clarke (7) at the Eleventh Convention criticized the system of teaching

trades. He said that trades were not really taught but that pupils were allowed to learn what they could in the shops. He also suggested a postgraduate course in which pupils would produce things in return for additional instruction. At the Thirteenth Convention (9) he again condemned the trades teaching system. He said that trades and trades teaching in the schools had not kept pace with educational advancement. He also said that the shops were getting to be factories producing for profit rather than educational schools whose object was the teaching of trades. The foreman of the shop should be interested in the number of pupils placed in jobs not in the number of finished items produced and sold. He was also opposed to having girls do servant work in the schools and having it called learning housework.

Trades teachers. An industrial section was added at the Fourteenth Convention and was continued up to the present time. This gave vocational education a new impetus in the convention. Swiler (12) in a paper at this Convention, said that the first consideration of vocational training is the teacher's fitness. This idea, that shop instructors should be teachers in every sense of the word, also reoccurs many times at the Conventions. Certain papers deal specifically with vocational teachers, how they can raise their status, and how they can improve instruction. (52) (114) (118) (119) (128) (136) (141).

Manual training and pre-vocational training. Robinson (18), also at the same convention, spoke on the value of manual training as the foundation of all industrial work. He said that it taught use of tools, nature of materials, coordination, and the mechanical principles of all trades. Miss Ohnstad (15) emphasized its value for girls who would not otherwise learn to do things they would normally learn at home. Peterson (32), told the Sixteenth Convention of the educational value of sloyd—a method of manual training adapted to small children.

Owen (22) and Bending (24) (34), suggested that manual training be given to pupils until they have a good knowledge of mechanics, then they should enter trades. Bending (34), said that perhaps it would be a good idea to carry manual training through the whole school leaving trades

teaching to a technical or trade school for the deaf, which he thought should be established.

Anderson (96) and Galen (156) had similar ideas with respect to guiding the deaf into trades. They said that primary pupils should work at various trades and should later be assigned to trades for which they had the most aptitude and interest.

Choice of trades. With respect to the vocational training that is open to pupils, the number of papers on different vocations would indicate the possibility of a wide variety of choices. This is especially true of the boys. Hammond (33) made a survey of sixty-two schools and reported the number of trades offered by most schools. He also told which trades were most profitable in different parts of the country. Anderson (133) called attention to the need for a revision of the *Annals'* classification of trades, he said it should include only gainful occupations. Hutcheson (134) gave a report of the curriculum committee on vocational education which studied 200 schools for the deaf. In their study of vocational education and arts they analyzed over 25 major occupations to determine course of studies, outlines, and textbooks.

Printing. Underhill (93) in 1923 told the members of the industrial section of the Twenty-third Convention that printing and allied trades were the most universally taught trades for the deaf. He said that answers to a questionnaire sent to printers hiring deaf men showed that printing is one of the best trades for the deaf. Barnes (16) at the Fourteenth Convention had said that pupils did not learn enough printing in the schools to get jobs; they were taught only to print institution newspapers. Anderson (147) at the Thirtieth Convention also criticized the form, shape, and handling of school newspapers as being of little value in vocational training in printing. Larson (25), Porter (51), and Long (61) discussed job-work, photo-engraving and linotyping, respectively, at different conventions. Dr. Long (103) also discussed bookbinding as an aid to printing at the Twenty-fourth Convention.

Agriculture. There has been a concerted attempt to interest the deaf in agriculture and allied vocations in

spite of Stone (3) and others who said that farming is not suited to the deaf. Ray (23) at the Fifteenth Convention said that schools did not emphasize agriculture, yet many pupils, especially in the South and West, came from rural areas. He suggested truck farming and floriculture for students in the South. Goodwin (41) speaking at the next Convention, said that people choose a trade because they know it or because there is money in it. He suggested agriculture as fulfilling these two requirements for the deaf. Robinson (84) reported the results of a survey on agriculture and the deaf at the Twenty-first Convention. He found that there were many successful deaf farmers. His suggestion was that more scientific courses on agriculture be included in the curriculum.

Scientific gardening and agricultural methods were discussed at various conventions by Fosdick (45), Wright (70), Drake (74), and Cameron (91). Cameron (63) was also interested in dairying for the deaf. He found in his teaching however, that the early hours and confining duties made it a difficult vocation to teach. Dobyns (59) had previously told of the dairy experiment in Mississippi and stated that it was not entirely successful.

Other trades. Woodworking (152), cabinet-making (17) (117), and shoe-making (19) (28) (37) are represented as being trades taught in most schools for the deaf. Other vocations specifically discussed are metal trades (162), auto mechanics (161), art (104) (155), junior business (143), painting and decorating (127), automobile repairing (102), photography (62), and barbering (27).

Opportunities for girls. Vocational training opportunities for girls are more limited than for boys. Mr. Grudger, in a discussion on cooking schools (6) in 1882, said that girls were trained for employment in private homes. This was the first reference to any vocation for girls. Miss Kerr (55) said, at the Seventeenth Convention, that work suitable for deaf girls was limited to 1. teaching—for the very few, 2. sewing and allied trades—for those with special gifts, and 3. housemaids and cooks—for the large majority. Domestic science has been discussed considerably at the various Conventions. From Miss Thompson's hope in 1895, that cooking schools

would be here to stay (14), domestic science courses expanded to include dressmaking, art, sewing, sloyd, cooking, mending, and ironing in 1908 (57). By 1923 domestic science courses included cooking, dietetics, sick-room nursing, budget and menu making, household economics, baby care, and house furnishings (95).

Other advances in girls vocational education were discussed by other speakers (35) (46) (100) (150) (158) (171). Thompson (113), Cuthbert (126), and Brooks (142) discussed various aspects of girls vocational programs at the Twenty-sixth, Twenty-seventh, and Twenty-ninth Conventions, respectively. At the Thirtieth Convention there were papers given on trade opportunities for girls in various parts of the country. Divine (144) spoke for the South, Baughman (145) for the Middle West, and Gerry (146) for the East.

Miscellaneous opportunities for deaf girls were suggested at various Conventions. Griffin (99) mentioned laundry, poultry raising, art, photography, bookkeeping, typing, filing, and millinery, which was also discussed by Balantyne (40). Tea-room management (160), agriculture (85), and others (106) (149) (151) (159) were also discussed.

Systems and methods of trades teaching. Various systems and methods of teaching vocations have been discussed at the Conventions. State plans of New Jersey and Colorado were explained by Johnson (89) and McAloney (107). These are excellent descriptions of planned vocational programs. Some of the principles of the Colorado plan as given by McAloney (107) were: the industrial department is equal to any other department; a definite course of study and course of language should be given for each trade; tests should be given on all phases of the work; careful selection of trades is necessary for each pupil; and offering a few well-taught trades rather than many trades indifferently taught. The New York plan was the subject of a discussion led by Endres (153) at the Thirtieth Convention. At the same Convention Miss Murphy (163) discussed the vocational adjustment program at the Lexington School. This program was introduced after it was discovered that the deaf had poor attitudes about employment, wages, and employers. The idea of attitude was

also stressed by Williams (168) who used a vocational analysis card as an aid in cultivating good attitudes and character in his pupils.

Vocational training problems. Discussion of problems in the field of vocational education was one of the major objectives of the industrial section. These are so many and varied that a list of some of the major problems and suggestions taken from various papers is all that will be included.

Whether to teach a few or many trades was discussed by Clarke (43) and others. Anderson (166) suggested that the conception that vocational training is tied up with economy of management be dropped. This had also been discussed frequently. He said that the sexes should learn to work together and should not be kept separate in vocational education work. He also discussed vocational literature, post-graduate courses, exploitation of pupil labor, and regimentation—all subjects frequently discussed at the Conventions. McManaway (105) introduced discussion on vocational textbooks, teacher training, tests, planning, and supervision. With the exception of the need for teacher training these had not received much previous attention. Agers (109) emphasized industrial intelligence as more valuable than general culture for the deaf. Tomlinson (116) presented teachers' salaries, graded classes and curricula, modern equipment, and vocational guidance as problems to be considered. Most of the suggestions and problems were discussed in other papers throughout the history of the convention.

Correlation between the academic and vocational. The need for a closer relationship between the classroom and the shops was first discussed at the Twenty-fifth Convention, when Clarke (26), asked how the pupils' time should be divided between the two. Jones (31) at the next convention, suggested that the school and the shops work together in teaching more practical arithmetic and language. Argo (56) took the stand that the deaf child should have as much literary education as the hearing child; shop work should be given in addition to this. Jenkins (65) and Gruver (82) emphasized that vocational subjects could be taught by the same methods as academic subjects.

Shop language, how it should be taught, and what department should teach it are subjects that were frequently discussed. (80 (81) (97) (101) (178).

Pope (87), Norris (118) and Tyrrell (157) discussed a closer correlation between industrial and academic work. Some of the suggestions they made were: having news bulletins, conducting inspection tours of the shops, including art training for all students, and that academic teachers take courses in manual training.

Getting a job. Dobyns (36) in 1901 said that business distinguishes only between the competent and the incompetent; the deaf, to secure jobs must be among the former. At the Twentieth Convention, Walker (68), Manning (69) Ely (71), and Clarke (72) discussed the various trades taught in schools in respect to sectional divisions. The best opportunities for the deaf, according to their discussions, were in the South and in the West. Success at any trade was prophesied for good, steady, and reliable workmen. At the same Convention, Hall (73) reported the success of many of the graduates of Gallaudet in vocational and professional fields. Amateau and Buchanan (77) (78) told of experiences in placing deaf workers while working for the Society for the Welfare of the Jewish Deaf. Dr. Harris Taylor (79) explained the New York system of placement.

Hasenstab (90) found that the public is generally not friendly to the deaf. This influences the latter's choice of and success at various vocations. Steed (92) said, at the Twenty-third Convention, that the deaf usually follow the trade learned at school or an allied trade. Two, more or less miscellaneous, papers were given on vocational training for the deaf-blind by Rice (44) and for the slow deaf child by Dobson (139).

Vocational guidance, adjustment, and rehabilitation have received a great deal of consideration during the last decade. Organizations offering these various services have been explained and discussed at the most recent Conventions (112) (123) (129) (164) (167). Vocational guidance, especially, was emphasized at the Thirty-third Convention by Quigley (176), Reeder (179), Jones (180), Ward (181), Seal (182), and Wartenberg (183). This material is more

recent and is generally more available than much of the other material presented here.

The vocational training of the deaf has been and will be of the greatest importance in their education. Whether this function will remain in the hands of the schools or will be turned over to other agencies remains to be seen. Whatever the means, the methods taught will be determined by the methods used in industry. For this reason, the vocational education program of the deaf will continue to change and to progress.

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CONCLUSION

It has been revealed that few schools have complete or nearly complete sets of the *Proceedings*, but a goodly number of schools have a substantial number. Many schools have duplicate copies of some of the *Proceedings*. One might conjecture that there are many more volumes in existence than appear in the tabulation in the Appendix of this thesis.* In all probability, many of these are hidden away in dusty attics and damp cellars, neglected and unused.

It is hoped that members of the profession in search of additional material concerning the education of the deaf will cause these copies to be brought into the light that they may be placed on library shelves. This is where they belong, for public use.

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